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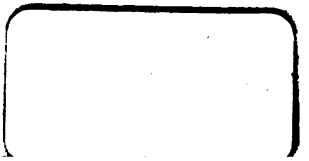

VIEW

OF THE

RUSSIAN EMPIRE,

DURING THE REIGN OF

CATHARINE THE SECOND,

AND TO THE

CLOSE OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

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VIEW

OF THE

RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

BOOK III.

SECTION III.

Natural characteriſtics of the inhabitants.

FOR completing the picture of the phyſical ſtate of the inhabitants of the ruſſian empire, it remains for us to delineate their bodily character. The more diverſe the modifications to which, from the infinite variety of their natural and moral relations, they muſt be liable, the more ſimple will be the plan we trace out to ourſelves in the preſent ſection. The bodily ſtate of a people is dependent on a thouſand things; nature of the ſoil, climate, weather; way of life, dreſs, food; manners and uſages, even political conſtitution and religion have a deciſive influence on the ſtrength, the durability, the health, in ſhort the

whole phyſical character of mankind. Some of theſe relations have already been touched upon in what has gone before, others can only be enlarged on in the ſequel; and, unleſs we intend to ſwell the preſent ſection to the thickneſs of a volume, we muſt confine ourſelves to general ſketches, for which the farther proſecution of this work will furniſh ample materials and colouring.

The RUSSIANS are a moderate-ſized, vigorous, and durable race of men. The growth and longevity of this people are very different in different diſtricts; but in general rather large than ſmall, and they are commonly well-built. It is very rare to ſee a perſon naturally deformed; which doubtleſs is chiefly owing to their looſe garments and the great variety of bodily exerciſes. All the ſports and paſtimes of the youth have a tendency to expand the body and give flexibility to the muſcles.

Eaſy as it is occaſionally by compariſon to diſcriminate the Ruſſian by his outward make from other Europeans, it will, however, be found very difficult to point out the principal lineaments of the national phyſiognomy, as ſpeaking features are in general extremely rare. The following may be deemed common and characteriſtical: a ſmall mouth, thin lips, white teeth, little eyes, a low forehead; the noſe has a great variety of forms; it is moſt frequently ſeen to be ſmall and turned upwards.

upwards. The beard is almoſt always very buſhy; the colour of the hair varies through all the ſhades from dark brown to red, but it is ſeldom quite black. The expreſſion of the countenance is gravity and good-nature or ſagacity. — Hearing and ſight are uſually very acute; but the other ſenſes more or leſs obtuſe by manner of living and climate. The gait and geſtures of the body have a peculiar and often impaſſioned vivacity, partaking, even with the mere ruſtics, of a certain complaiſance and an engaging manner.

The ſame features, on the whole, are conſpicuous in the female ſex, but in general improved, and here and there actually dignified. A delicate ſkin and a ruddy complexion are in the vulgar idea the firſt requiſites of beauty; in fact fine roſy cheeks are perceived more commonly among the ruſſian women than in other countries, but no where is paint ſo eſſential an article of the toilet as here, even among the loweſt claſſes of the people. As the growth of the ruſſian ladies is not confined by any bandages, ſtays, or other compreſſes, the proportions of the parts uſually far exceed the line which the general taſte of Europe has preſcribed for the contour of a fine ſhape. — The early maturity of girls, at which they generally arrive in the twelfth or thirteenth year, is only to be accounted for, in ſo cold a climate, by the frequent uſe of hot baths, which, while it accelerates this expanſion, alſo brings on

an early decay of beauty and ſolidity of bodily frame. Married women ſeldom retain the freſh complexion and the peculiar charms of youth beyond the firſt lying-in. By their baths, their paint, and the great ſubmiſſion in which they live with their huſbands, the moderate ſhare of beauty with which nature has endowed theſe daughters of the northern earth is generally faded at an age when the huſband is juſt entering on his prime.

Among the collateral branches of the ruſſian ſtock but few variations are diſcernible in the bodily form. The Malo-ruſſians have ſomewhat of the Poles in their phyſiognomy; the Don-kózaks partake of the tartarian, and the Ural-kozaks of the tartarian and kalmuck, which proceeds from the commixture, wherein theſe people have long been accuſtomed to live. With all of them, however, the main lineaments are ruſſian, and ſo impoſſible to be miſtaken, that the form of the face alone affords the ſtrongeſt proof of their parentage.

The bodily frame of the Ruſſians is excellent. Their happy organization, their cheerful and blithe temper, that hardneſs which they oppoſe to every inconveniency, the natural ſimplicity of their manner of living, and their rude, but dry and wholeſome climate, procure to the great maſs of the people a degree of phyſical complacency of which few other nations can boaſt. — The

Ruſſians

Ruſſians are endowed with a vitality, of which an inſtance has ſcarcely ever yet been found in any other country, as we have ſeen in the foregoing ſection. If the Engliſhman or the Spaniard excels the Ruſſian in bodily ſtrength, the latter is ſuperior to them by far in the endurance, or in the patient ſuffering of ſeverer hardſhips. Hunger and thirſt, want of accommodation and repoſe the Ruſſian can bear longer than any other nation*. — In all the lower claſſes, the ſoldiery excepted, a healthy old age is very common; lively old men of a hundred years are in all parts

* Of the almoſt incredible endurance of the Ruſſians ſuch proofs are ſeen in the long and toilſome marches of the army, the ſevere corporal puniſhments they undergo, &c. as fill foreigners with amazement. How often is the ruſſian ſoldier obliged to croſs waſte and waterleſs ſteppes, or to paſs the whole winter in little earth cells, without firing and without any other proviſion than his dry biſcuit! How often do we ſee malefactors, after a puniſhment, the very ſight of which makes one ſhudder at every nerve, walk their way back to priſon, without ſupport and without any viſible alteration in their gait! — With all this, however, it is extremely remarkable that the Ruſſian, notwithſtanding this extraordinary paſſive power, if I may ſo expreſs myſelf, does not poſſeſs an unuſual degree of bodily ſtrength. To put a burden in motion, or to convey it from its place by people, always in Ruſſia far more men are uſed than in other countries; and that this is not done merely to ſpare them, we may convince ourſelves by every day's experience at the wharfs by the exchange, where an engliſh ſailor will ſometimes lift and carry things which the utmoſt exertions of three Ruſſians would ſeem ſcarcely to move.

of Ruſſia no unuſual appearance, but probably the number of them would be far greater if the propenſity to dram-drinking were not the occaſion of ſo great a mortality in the middle periods of life.

There are but few peculiar diſeaſes prevalent among the Ruſſians, and againſt moſt of them they know how to guard themſelves by ſimple diet and domeſtic remedies. The women every where bring forth with great facility, and uſually in the bath-rooms; the number of ſtill-born children is therefore, in compariſon with other countries, extremely ſmall. The ſmall-pox and meaſles carry off not nearly ſo many children as in the greater part of the reſt of Europe; but on the other hand the effects of venereal diſorders are more dangerous and infectious, the virulence of it being unhappily increaſed by the cold. — In Siberia, ſometimes in ſummer, a diſeaſe called by the Germans the luftſeuche or air ſickneſs appears *, an epidemical diſeaſe attacking both man and beaſt. It ſhews itſelf by a bile on ſome part of the body, and, if no ſpeedy aſſiſtance can be had, is mortal, though not infectious; but they have now found out an eaſy and ſafe method of cure. — About the upper Lena croups or goitres are common enough; young people, however, get quit of them on coming to parts where they

* Pallas, travels, tom. ii. p. 308. 473. 484.

have

have better water. — In the neighbourhood of the Caſpian there is a horrible, tedious, and deadly leproſy, which happily, however, becomes leſs and leſs frequent in its attacks, and is generally called, from its former country, the krimean diſeaſe*.

Moſt of the houſehold remedies of the common Ruſſians are truly heroic. A mixture of leeks, garlic, ſpaniſh-pepper, and brandy, ſeems with them to be the grand panacea, and is applied without regard and diſtinction in all diſeaſes of whatever kind and how oppoſite ſoever; ſo alſo aconite, hellebore, and the like, are in high reputation for their medicinal virtues. In pains and aches of the bones or limbs, and in colicky complaints, they burn moxa of artemiſia, &c. on the bare ſkin. — In general the common Ruſſians uſe but few medicines; ſupplying their place in all caſes by the SWEATING BATH, a practice ſo univerſal among them, and which has ſo decided an influence on the whole phyſical ſtate of the people, that we muſt abſolutely dwell a little longer upon it†.

The uſe of the bath, that venerable relict of the manners of the antient world, is now almoſt entirely confined to the oriental nations, where

* Pallas, travels, tom. i. p. 302.

† See the excellent tract of profeſſor Schlœtzer on the harmleſſneſs of the ſmall-pox in Ruſſia.

it miniſters both to health and to luxury, and is perpetuated by religion. In Europe it has been gradually declining for ſeveral centuries, though it was here alſo in ſome ſort interwoven with religion*; Ruſſia and Hungary are at preſent the only countries in this quarter of the world, where it is ſtill the cuſtom to bathe after the manner of the antients. In Ruſſia particularly the bath makes ſo much a part of the ſyſtem of living, that it is uſed by people of every age and in all circumſtances, by infants, by women at their lying-in, in almoſt all ſickneſſes, before and after a journey, after hard work, &c. The bath is a neceſſary of life ſo indiſpenſable to the common people, that they frequent it as often as poſſible, well or ill, and without any particular occaſion, once a week at leaſt. Perſons of the middle ſtation, in good circumſtances, and the great, uſually conſtruct vapour-baths after the ruſſian faſhion in their own houſes; though in theſe claſſes the practice is becoming more confined as foreign manners gain ground among them.

The baths have been common throughout Ruſſia from time immemorial; they are deſcribed by Neſtor ſo long ago as the eleventh century preciſely as they are conſtituted at preſent. — Among the antients the baths were public build-

* The holy-water in the roman-catholic church is a ſlight remnant of it.

ings,

ings, under the immediate cognizance of the government. Their invention was owing to cleanlineſs and convenience; but in the ſequel all the graces of architecture were laviſhed upon them, and at length luxury and voluptuouſneſs ſo diſtorted them from their primitive purpoſes, that they were offenſive and ſhocking even to the moraliſts of antiquity. Alexander was aſtoniſhed at the magnificence of the baths in Perſia: at Rome, under the emperors, there were once eight hundred and ſeventy of theſe edifices, that in point of magnificence and taſte might paſs for maſterpieces of art; and which were doomed in aftertimes to be demoliſhed by the Goths, or converted into churches by biſhops. — In our days Hungary is the only country that can ſtill ſhew baths equal in magnificence to thoſe of the antient Romans. In Ruſſia, on the contrary, they are always of that ſimple conſtruction which beſpeaks their primitive and moſt eſſential deſtination.

Here the public baths * uſually conſiſt of mean wooden houſes, ſituate, whenever it is poſſible, by the ſide of a running ſtream. In the bath-room

* They are called public becauſe they are under the care of the police, and are let out to common people on the crown's account; farther than this the government takes no concern either about their erection or their management. Out in the country they are entirely free.—The produce from the contract is trifling. At leaſt, in the year 1723, in the whole empire it amounted to no more than 37,957 rubles.

is

is a large vaulted oven, which when heated makes the paving-ſtones lying upon it red-hot; and adjoining to the oven is a kettle fixed in maſonry, for the purpoſe of holding boiling water. Round about the walls are three or four rows of benches one above another like the ſeats of a ſcaffold. The room has little light, but here and there are apertures for letting the vapour eſcape: the cold water that is wanted being let in by ſmall channels. Some baths have an anti-chamber for dreſſing and undreſſing; but in moſt of them this is done in the open court-yard, which on that account has a boarded fence, and is provided with benches of planks.

By far the majority of the baths are conſtructed as they are here deſcribed. In the country, in parts where wood is ſcarce, they ſometimes conſiſt of miſerable caverns, commonly dug in the earth cloſe to the bank of ſome river. In the houſes of wealthy individuals, and in the palaces of the great, they are formed upon the ſame conſtruction, but infinitely more elegant and convenient.

The heat in the bath-room is uſually from thirty-two to forty degrees of Reaumur, and that greatly increaſed by the throwing of water every five minutes on the glowing hot ſtones in the chamber of the oven. By this means the heat often riſes, eſpecially on the uppermoſt bench, to forty-four degrees of that thermometer.—The bathers lie, ſtark naked, on one of the benches, where they

perſpire

perſpire more or leſs in proportion to the heat of the humid atmoſphere in which they are enveloped. In order the better to promote perſpiration and completely to open the pores, they are firſt rubbed, and then gently flagellated with leafy bunches of birch. After remaining awhile, they come down from the ſweating-bench, and waſh their body with warm or cold water, and at laſt plunge over head in a large tub of water. Many people throw themſelves immediately from the bath-room into the adjoining river, as the youths of ancient Rome uſed to leap into a pond after the violent exerciſe of wreſtling, or roll themſelves in the ſnow in a froſt of ten or more degrees.

The ruſſian baths, therefore, are SWEATING-BATHS; not the roman tepidaria and caldaria of a moderate warmth, but very violent ſweating-baths, which to a perſon unhabituated to the practice bring on a real, though a gentle and almoſt voluptuous ſwoon. They are VAPOUR-BATHS, not water nor yet dry ſweating-baths; herein they differ from all the baths of antiquity as well as from thoſe of the modern orientals; and this is alſo their eſſential excellence, that they are beneficial in ſuch a variety of caſes where hot-water baths would be uſeleſs or even pernicious. They are, farther, SALUTARY-BATHS, as they promote cleanlineſs, aſſiſt the perſpiration, render the ſkin ſoft and ſmooth, &c. and not voluptuous baths as among the Greeks and Romans. All the inven-

tions

tions of effeminacy and luxury are entirely obviated; of anointing after the uſe of the bath (which in Rome was held ſo indiſpenſable a requiſite, that even the emperors diſtributed oil among the people) the Ruſſian is perfectly ignorant. Inſtead of this the ſudden tranſition from heat to a rigorous froſt hardens his body to all the ſeverities of climate, to every viciſſitude of weather; a tranſition which ſeems unnatural or dangerous to us, only from the prejudices of a ſoft and effeminate age *.

It is not to be doubted that the Ruſſians owe their longevity, their robuſt ſtate of health, their little diſpoſition to certain mortal diſeaſes, and their happy and cheerful temper, moſtly to theſe baths; though climate, aliment, and habits of living likewiſe contribute their ſhare. — The great lord chancellor Bacon, and other ſagacious obſervers of nature and of mankind, have lamented, and certainly not without cauſe, that this bathing has fallen into diſuſe among the modern nations of Europe, and juſtly wiſh the practice back again in

* The turkiſh ladies, who certainly need not yield in point of delicacy to thoſe of Europe, bear this ſudden alteration equally well with the ruſſian populace. They continue bathing, according to the teſtimony of lady Mary Wortley Montague, at leaſt four or five hours together, and without catching cold, though they go immediately from the hot bath into the cool apartment:—which was naturally very ſurpriſing to the engliſh lady.

all

all our towns and villages. In fact, when we conſider that the old phyſicians ſo early introduced into their practice this remedy of nature's own invention, and employed it with ſuch great ſucceſs; when we recollect that Rome for five hundred years together had no phyſicians but only baths, and that to this day a multitude of nations cure almoſt all their maladies merely by baths; we cannot avoid regarding the diſmiſſion of them as the epocha of a grand revolution which has been wrought in the phyſical ſtate of the human race in our quarter of the world.

The natural perſpiration, the moſt important of all excretions, muſt naturally go on better in a body conſtantly kept ſoft by bathing. A great number of impurities which privily lay in us the train to tedious and dangerous diſtempers, are timely removed ere they poiſon the blood and the juices. All exanthematic diſeaſes are abated by bathing, conſequently then the ſmall-pox; and if this dreadful diſorder be actually leſs fatal in Ruſſia than in other countries, this phænomenon need not be attributed to any other cauſe than the vapour-baths *.

It appears, then, from the concurrent teſtimonies of hiſtory, language, and phyſiognomy, that the Ruſſians are of ſlavonian origin, and conſe-

* See on this ſubject, in Schlœtzer's above-quoted work, the diſſertation of Dr. Sanchez: De cura variolarum vaporarii ope apud Ruſſos, &c.

quently

quently are related to the Poles, the Bohemians, the Slavonians, and other nations of the north. At the time of the great emigrations from the eaſt, in the fifth century of the vulgar æra, being diſturbed in their abode on the Danube by the Bulgarians and Valakhians, they diſperſed themſelves various ways; ſome marching to the Dniepr, where they built Kief, others bending their courſe to the Volkhof that flows into the Ladoga lake, and there laid the foundations of Novgorod. The latter colony fell under the ſway of the Varages; by whom they were named Ruſſi, and their country Ruſſia or Roſſia, which appellation they adopted themſelves. Both the ſlavonian colonies were democracies; but their regent Rurik, in the year 862, made them a monarchy, which ſoon extended its limits far and wide. Towards the cloſe of the tenth century, Vladimir introduced the ceremonies of the greek religion, to which he made thoſe of the pagan give place. The ſubſequent partition of the empire among ſeveral princes was favourable to the incurſions of the Tartars; and the thirteenth century ſaw Ruſſia in ſubjection to Baaty, the khan of the Golden Horde, and his deſcendants, and Kief ſubmiſſive to the yoke of the Poles. In the latter half of the fifteenth century the grand duke Ivan Vaſſillievitch the firſt very much curbed the Tartars; and about the middle of the ſixteenth century Ivan Vaſſillievitch the ſecond overturned the tartarian empire, and

made

made its kingdoms of Kazan and Aſtrakhan tributary to his ſceptre. He extended the boundaries of his dominion to the foot of the caucaſean mountains. In the year 1578, the conqueſt of Siberia was begun under the auſpices of the grand duke Feodor Ivanovitch, by the don-kozak Yermak Timofeyef, which was continued during the following reigns in the ſeventeenth century to the ſhores of the eaſtern ocean and the banks of the Amoor.

With the commencement of the eighteenth century, Peter the great began to reform the political and moral condition of his empire, made diſcoveries in the northern and eaſtern oceans, by which he enlarged his dominion almoſt to Japan and the american ſhores, and extended the boundaries of the empire towards Sweden and Perſia. It was reſerved for Catharine the ſecond to proſecute the plans of Peter; to extend the limits of the empire towards Poland; to give efficacy to the moral improvement, the proſperity and the happineſs of the people; and by wholeſome laws, by the inſtitution of ſeminaries of learning, to tranſmit the energy and the glory of her reign to future generations.

We have already ſeen the prodigious extent of the empire. But notwithſtanding the great diſperſion, and the conſequent diverſity of countries, climates, and ſituations, the people have far more reſemblance in point of perſon and manners than thoſe

thoſe of different nations in ſmaller ſtates. Ruſſians about Novgorod, Aſtrakhan, Archangel, Tobolſk, Yakutſk, are not ſo different as Germans from the various circles of that leſs extenſive empire. The uniform, ſimple, natural mode of life, a mind exempt from care, and a ſameneſs of religion, particularly from their influence on the diet, ſeem to be the principal cauſes of this little alteration.

The ruſſian language is an improved dialect of the ſlavonian, which, with its characters, is ſtill in uſe in the offices of religion. The ruſſian alphabet has forty-one letters, whereof ſome are only notes of accent in pronunciation. The language is rich in words, ſoft, expreſſive, and requires great pliancy in the organs of utterance. Seminaries have been founded of old in the epiſcopal ſeats; gymnaſiums and the univerſities of Kief and Moſco are foundations of great antiquity. There was, however, a deficiency in ſchools; and therefore the late empreſs was conſtantly adding to their number. Beſides theſe, here are inſtitutions for the education of the military and the nobility, and for young ladies of quality; an academy alſo of ſciences, and another for the ſtudy of the arts, which were entirely re-erected on a magnificent plan by Catharine II. to whoſe munificence likewiſe the nation is indebted for the eſtabliſhment of an academy for the improvement of rural economy, and a ſociety for the cultivation of

of the ruſſian language. In all the ſeveral inſtitutions for the purpoſes of education throughout the empire, the pupils are found in every neceſſary article, ſuch as board, lodging, food, raiment, waſhing, &c. and are dependent on the foundation. Accordingly the entrance into theſe ſchools is accounted a ſervice rendered to the country; and in reckoning the years of ſervice, in order to promotion in rank, the years of attendance at ſchool are always included.

The native Ruſſians are of different ſtature; ſome are very tall, but few much below the uſual height; ſeveral of them are remarkably ſtrong limbed, in general they are lean, but well built. Thoſe deformities which in other parts of Europe are moſtly owing to the refinements of luxury introduced into education, are here but rarely ſeen: their mouth and eyes are ſmall, the lips thin, the teeth even and beautiful, the noſe, as every where, various, in general not large nor very aquiline; the forehead frequently low, and their aſpect rather grave: the beard is ſtrong and buſhy, their hair lank, brown, flaxen, or red, ſeldom or never entirely black: in ſight and hearing they are uncommonly acute: the organs of feeling, ſmell, and taſte, are hardened, like all the reſt of their body, by the rudeneſs of their climate and manner of life. They are moſtly of a ſanguine choleric temperament, and vice verſa, with a greater or leſs mixture of the melancholic, ſeldom of the

phlegmatic, ſtill ſeldomer merely melancholic or phlegmatic: in gait and action they are briſk, lively, and agile.

The complexion of the females is brunette, with a fine ſkin; many of them extremely handſome. As not any reſtraint is put upon their growth, their breaſts and feet are large; the former far more full than thoſe of the tartar women. Girls generally arrive early at maturity, numbers in their twelfth or thirteenth year; but many of them loſe all their beauty, after being married but a couple of years. The frequent uſe of the hot-bath promotes an early developement, and as early a decay; and the hideous practice of painting ſpoils the ſkin. As the women, among the lower ſtations in general, are kept on harder fare, and more accuſtomed to work than the girls, they are alſo more negligent of their perſons.

The general diſpoſition of the people is gay, careleſs even to levity, much addicted to ſenſuality, quick in comprehending whatever is propoſed, and not leſs prompt in its execution; ingenious in finding out means of abridging their work; in all their occupations ready, alert, and dexterous. Violent in their paſſions, they eaſily miſtake the golden mean, and not unfrequently ruſh into the contrary extreme. They are attentive, reſolute, bold, and enterpriſing. To trade and barter they have an irreſiſtible impulſe. They are hoſpitable and liberal, frequently to their own

impoverishment. Anxious sollicitudes about the future, here cause but few grey pates. In their intercourse with others, they are friendly, jovial, complaisant, very ready to oblige, not envious, slanderous, or censorious, and much given to reserve. From their natural and simple way of life, their wants are few, and those easily satisfied, leaving them leisure for recreations and repose; and the constant cheerfulness of their temper frees them from troublesome projects, procures them satisfaction in all situations, keeps them healthy and strong, and brings them to an undisquieted, contented, brisk, sometimes a very advanced old age.

The nation chiefly consists of the nobility and peasantry; but we may also admit the burgesses, a class which was constantly more and more raised and encouraged by the late sovereign; to which may be added the kozaks as another order. The nobility is composed of princes*, noblemen, or boyars; and, in later times, of princes of the roman empire, counts, and barons. The nobles may be proprietors of land and people, and hold the highest offices in the civil and military departments. The dvorianini are in a manner city-nobles, though not properly to be compared with the patricians of the cities of Germany. Odnodvortzi are the lowest class of noblesse, somewhat similar to the body-guards in Poland.

* Kniasi.

The burgher ſtate, yeomanry, or commonalty, to give it ſomewhat of an engliſh term, though neither of them will properly expreſs it, is compoſed of the Poſſatſki and Raſnotſhintzi, who live in towns and villages, governed by their proper magiſtrates, whether as merchants or tradeſmen. They are excluded from offices and poſts of ſervice or honour, furniſh head-money and recruits, but cannot be vaſſals. By the uncontrolled freedom of trade that is enjoyed in this country, whereby any man may now follow one calling and then another, and not conſtantly adhere to either, merchants and handicraftſmen oftentimes live by agriculture alone, while boors ſubſiſt by trade and buſineſs. It is not uſual for the latter to employ journeymen and apprentices, but only workmen and labourers. However, this claſs is ſo totally diſſimilar from any order of men in our own or other countries, that a more circumſtantial account of it is not here to be expected, but will more properly find a place in the following book.

By an edict of the year 1775, the merchants pay annually at the rate of one per cent. on their capital in lieu of the capitation tax, and are alſo allowed to pay money inſtead of the recruits they are bound to furniſh; by which this rank has been greatly raiſed.

Of the peaſantry, ſuch as belong to the crown and the monaſteries pay taxes according to the laws of the land, and are liable to the other duties impoſed

impoſed by the ſame authority; but they may be made over to particulars as donatives from the crown. Noble boors, as they are called, are the vaſſals of their lord, on whoſe arbitrary diſpoſal they entirely depend, and according to the temper and diſpoſition of whom, they are either treated with harſhneſs or humanity; ſuch as are ſo happy as to belong to benevolent and generous maſters generally live comfortably enough, and ſome of them frequently get rich. From all of them ſuch as are fit to be made ſoldiers are taken by lot as recruits. The peaſantry are not bound to follow agriculture, the breeding of cattle, and the other employments of huſbandry, but may ſtrike into trade and purſue it either alone or in conjunction with their rural concerns, as they find it moſt beneficial or convenient.

The kozaks form a particular claſs originating from the peaſantry. They live, exempt from taxes, in villages, forts, and petty towns, on the produce of their fields and paſtures or the labour of their hands, furniſh no recruits, are not given away as ſerfs, and enjoy other privileges. But they all ſerve as light horſemen, as early and as long as they are fit for it, providing themſelves with horſes, clothes, and accoutrements, and only receive pay when they are in actual ſervice; of them, however, more is ſaid in another place.

The trades carried on by the Ruſſians are in ge-

neral the ſame as are exerciſed in the other parts of Europe.

The inland commerce ſeems but ſmall, as it is moſtly conducted by ſhopkeepers and monopolizers, and the chief tranſport of goods by land is in caravans; it is nevertheleſs of great importance, by giving employment and ſuſtenance to an innumerable body of people, by the great vent it procures for the products of nature and art, and by keeping the ſpecie of the country in a conſtant and quick circulation. The petty merchants carry on their buſineſs by travelling from place to place about the country; and, therefore, on all occaſions make ſpeedy and frequent returns of their money. By their frugal manner of living, and by the hoſpitality of the boors which every where prevails, the conſumption even on long journies is but ſmall; and thus it frequently happens that an apparently inſignificant, unproductive traffic maintains and often enriches a number of families. Formerly all traffic was confined to the annual fairs. The merchants attended them with the commodities they had to diſpoſe of, and bought with the money they got for them, or bartered them againſt, the products of thoſe parts. For a long time paſt, every city, every town*, and many great villages, has its regular market, retaining at the ſame time its annual fairs. The

* Sloboda.

market-

market-places throughout the empire are, in their mode of conſtruction, uniformly the ſame: a quadrangular building of timber or brick, divided into ſhops, with a piazza before them for the conveniency of cuſtomers in all kinds of weather. This frequently ſpacious and handſome ſtructure, which, on account of the foreigners that ſometimes hire ſhops in them, are called gueſt-courts*, and in regard to its uſes, the buying or bartering-place, and where alone, and not in private houſes, articles of trade may be ſold, is uſually built by the government or the magiſtracy of the place. At Irbit in Siberia, at Ekaterinenburg, and above all in the monaſtery of Makarief on the banks of the Volga, near Niſhney-Novgorod, yearly fairs are held, which, for the amount of the turns and returns, may vie with the moſt noted in Europe.

The foreign commerce, till about the cloſe of the fifteenth century, was but trifling, and almoſt wholly confined to Novgorod, which belonged to the hanſeatic league. The Ruſſians were unacquainted with their own products; and, living as they did, in the genuine ſimplicity of the children of nature, they had little occaſion for articles from abroad. By imperceptible degrees the products of the country were underſtood and explored; and the introduction of a more refined mode of living occaſioned a demand for foreign

* Goſtinoi dvor.

commodities. Under Peter the great, manufactories got up; the working of mines and all kinds of trade went on in a thriving ſtate; and commercial regulations, duties, &c. gave commerce a proper direction, and ſecured the balance in their favour. It is a general practice with the merchants of Ruſſia to be paid half of the price beforehand of the inland commodities which they buy up and deliver to foreigners, according to contract, for exportation; but to take foreign goods upon a year's credit. Foreigners therefore only gain when all goes right; but the Ruſſians always, let matters take what courſe they will. For which reaſon they willingly reſign to foreigners the profits accruing from the tranſport, and have themſelves but few ſhips at ſea. The moſt conſiderable maritime commerce, as we have already ſeen, is at St. Peterſburg and Riga, by way of the Baltic; at Archangel, on the northern ocean, &c. at Taganrok, on the Euxine; at Aſtrakhan on the Caſpian, and at Kamtſhatka, on the Eaſtern ocean. The principal ſeats of the foreign commerce by land are the Ukraine, whence the ruſſian merchants viſit the markets of Poland and the fairs of Germany; Orenburg, where a conſiderable trade is carried on with ſeveral aſiatic nations; and Kiachta in Daouria, where a great mercantile intercourſe is held with China.

Manufactories of wool, cotton, ſilk, flax, metals, &c. paper-mills, wax bleacheries, ſalt-

petre

petre and glaſs-houſes, tapeſtry, and porcelain fabrics, with many other eſtabliſhments of a like nature, partly belonging to the crown, but moſtly to private perſons, and eſpecially the working of mines, employ an immenſe number of people, as well as artiſts and tradeſmen, both in town and country. The products of theſe manufactories yield in no reſpect to the beſt of other countries; which however cannot always be affirmed of the works of the ruſſian artizans.

As the free countrymen pay a tax not only for their fields, but alſo for their heads, they follow huſbandry with that licence I mentioned before; and many of them neglect it entirely in order to devote themſelves to trade and buſineſs. The vaſſal-boors are employed, at the pleaſure of their lord, either in country or city occupations, in manufactories and fabrics, the handicraft trades, or the mines. Agriculture, therefore, is not ſo generally the buſineſs of the peaſantry in Ruſſia as in other countries. However, on the whole it is carried on to ſo great an extent, as not only to furniſh the nations of the empire that eat bread with that article, and the prodigious quantities of corn, at a very moderate price, conſumed by the brandy diſtilleries; but alſo can export a great ſuperfluity to foreign countries. Even from the fifty-fifth to the ſixtieth degree of north latitude in Siberia, are large tracts of arable land, moſtly fertile,

fertile, good crops of hay, and ſpacious foreſts. More to the north, cultivation is leſs to be depended on, and the whole ſyſtem of rural œconomy is very liable to failures, and attended with great difficulties. Throughout Ruſſia every village has its proper territory, and every eſtate its allotted incloſures and commons*. In the leſs cultivated plains of Siberia, every man takes as much ground from the open ſteppes as he can manage. When ſuch a portion of ground is exhauſted, the countryman lets it lie fallow for a year or two, goes and turns up another piece, and ſo proceeds. Frequently theſe little ſtrips of ground lie ſcattered at twenty, fifty, and even eighty verſts diſtance from the village. The ſize of theſe fields is meaſured eaſtwards†, each of which being ſixty fathom long and forty wide; but in ſome parts, and all over the Ukraine, they are eighty fathom in length and forty in breadth.

In Ruſſia and Siberia they cultivate winter rye and ſummer rye‡, winter-wheat§ only in Ruſſia as far as the Kama, ſummer-wheat both in Ruſſia and Siberia; barley‖, ſpelt-barley, or bear-barley♂, plentifully in Ruſſia; oats♁, in Ruſſia and Siberia; few peaſe, ſtill fewer vetches and beans; a great deal of buck-wheat ξ; in Siberia tartarian buck-

* Tiaglo. † Deſettini. ‡ Roſh. § Pſhenitza.
‖ Yeſhmen. ♂ Polba. ♁ Ovzi. ξ Gretſhucha.

wheat,

wheat φ, millet *, and the grain called panicum germanicum, only in Ruſſia.

The manure depends much on the quality of the ſoil, climate, and greater or inferior population. In well peopled regions the fields are dunged, becauſe the huſbandman can afford them but little reſpite; in fertile diſtricts, however, of leſs numerous habitations, the good arable land endures no dung, requiring only after every five or ten years uſe, three, four, or five years reſt. Such powerful ſoil is found in different parts of the governments of Simbirſk and Penza, and about Ufa and Orenburg, as alſo in the ſouthern ſteppes of Siberia, in the ſteppes of the Iſet, the Iſhim, the Baraba, about Irkutſk and in ſouthern Daouria. The corn, after dunging, ſhoots up into high ſtraw, and bears no ſolid ears. The moſt ungrateful ſoils are in Finnland, Archangel, and the north of Ruſſia, alſo the north and north-eaſtern parts of Siberia, in Kamtſhatka, &c. They rarely yield an increaſe above threefold, and often entirely fail by the intenſeneſs of the froſt. The common land brings an increaſe of from five to eight fold, and the freſh broke pieces in the above-mentioned ſteppes for ſome years ſucceſſively will give an increaſe of ten up to fifteen fold.

φ Polygonum tataricum LINN. ruſs dikuſha.
* Proſa.

The

The country people generally make uſe of the little ruſſian or livonian one horſe plough*. For winter corn they plough twice, for ſummer corn only once, and always quite flat. On ſome lands the corn is firſt ſtrewn, then ploughed in, and harrowed ſmooth with an additional horſe by the ſide of the other; by which method one man, with two poor feeble horſes, can rid a good bit of ground. In woody diſtricts the boors make new land in the ſwediſh manner, by burning the foreſts, which if they let alone only for three or four years will all be covered over again with young trees and ſaplings.

The corn is cut with ſickles†, in which employment the women and children aſſiſt. They bind it in little ſheaves, ſet it up on the fields in ſhocks, and carry it home in winter on ſledges. They then dry it in ſmall wooden kilns‡, with a ſmouldering fire, which they keep burning in a hole near the kiln, and the ſmoke whereof ruſhes into it. The corn thus dried, is ſpread upon the ice of a river, or a floor wetted with water, where it is threſhed with light flails, then ſtored in little barns; and, what remains over from domeſtic uſes, is conveyed to town, which is ſometimes a hundred, nay two hundred, or even four hundred verſts diſtant; where it is ſold, not by meaſure, but by weight; rye and wheat as well as meal, in

* Socha. † Serpa. ‡ Ovini.

mat-

mat-ſacks* of eight pood, and, eſpecially in Siberia, at an inconceivably low price. In Kraſnoyarſk, for example, where it is particularly cheap, a pood of rye meal will ſell for two to three kopeeks; or about a penny. Wheat flour five kopeeks, and ſo of the reſt. In Irkutſk they are about three times dearer. — In many parts of the country every boor has his own † water-mill built by himſelf, with a horizontal water-wheel. In cold regions the ſtraw is given to the cattle; but in the ſouthern parts, where the cattle remain out all the winter, it is left to rot.

The villagers, with whom winter provender is a requiſite, have hay-fields, bordering on the banks of lakes and rivers, in brakes and fens of the foreſts. In order to get rid of the old withered graſs, the dry weeds, twigs, and light ſtuff, for warming the ground, and for manuring it with wood-aſh, they ſet it on fire, as they are apt to do with the meadow-lands of the ſteppe in ſpring; though, on account of the great miſchief occaſioned by this practice to the foreſts, whole verſts of them being frequently burnt at once, it is ſtrictly prohibited. When the ſteppes and meadow-lands are thus on fire, the appearance they make, eſpecially at night, is truly tremendous; the fire works its way in all directions, frequently in lines that extend farther than the eye can

* Kool. † Mutofka.

reach,

reach, and fill the horizon in ſuch manner with ſmoke, that one may look ſtedfaſtly at the ſun the whole day through. The graſs is mowed with very ſmall ſcythes, and not before the month of July, that it may have time to reach its full growth and ſcatter its ſeed.

Beſides corn, they grow flax*, in large quantities, chiefly on the ſhores of the Volga; but moſt of all in the government of Yaroſlaf, where one ſees flax-fields, as elſewhere corn-fields; the next in the produce of flax are the governments of Moſco and Kazan. It is thought that the common flax would not proſper in Siberia; nevertheleſs ſome Poles, ſettled about the Irtiſh and in Daouria upon the Selenga, cultivate valakhian flax with good ſucceſs. The perennial flax, frequent in the ſouth of Siberia†, is entirely unheeded, though it may be propagated to great advantage.

Hemp‡ is indigenous in all the ſouth and middle of Ruſſia and Siberia, and in all theſe parts is propagated in great abundance, both on account of its material, for linens, ſail-cloth, &c. and of the oil expreſſed from its ſeed, of which an amazing quantity is conſumed for food during the faſts, and, as well as the hemp itſelf, exported annually to a great amount.

* Len. † The linum perenne LINNÆI. ‡ Kanapl.

Woad

Woad likewiſe grows wild in ſouthern Ruſſia and Siberia; it is gathered in the Ukraine and employed in ſtaining and dying. It is alſo cultivated, but only in the government of Penza, and about the Don.

Tobacco is planted almoſt ſolely in the Ukraine; but there in great abundance.

Hops are propagated by the villagers only in ſmall quantities, in the governments of Kazan, Niſhney-Novgorod, &c. and in Siberia in the province of Irkutſk. They are plentifully ſupplied with the wild ſort, which thrives almoſt every where, among the buſhes that grow about the banks of rivers, in brakes and low foreſts.

But little account is made of orchards except in the chief towns: however they are ſeen about the towns and villages, on the Volga from the region round Moſco down the river to Aſtrakhan, along the Oka, and the other rivers on the right of the Volga and the inferior parts of the river Ural, and all over the Ukraine, where orchard fruits are cultivated with great diligence and ſucceſs. After all the attempts that have been made, no fruit-trees will thrive in Siberia. Something of a country wine* is made about the Don, in Little Ruſſia, on the Terek, and on the Volga, near Saratof, and eſpecially about Aſtrakhan. Every villager has a little kitchen-garden adjoining

* Tſhigir.

to

to his cottage, particularly for the growth of cabbages, turnips, bete, carrots*, cucumbers, radiſhes, onions, and leeks, a few potatoes, ſome dill, gourds, and melons, indiſpenſable to him on account of the numerous faſt-days. Water-melons† are cultivated in ſurpriſing numbers in the ſouth-eaſtern parts of Ruſſia, from the Don to the Ural, eſpecially on the Volga, in open fields got from the ſteppes, and are eaten either raw, or ſalted like cucumbers.

The foreſts, which are ſcattered ſparingly about the ſouthernmoſt parts of Ruſſia, in the northern extremities above the ſixtieth degree are not ſeen. They are very common in the middle regions of Ruſſia and in Siberia, and conſiſt alternately of the fir‡, the pine§, the white fir‖, the white and black poplar♂, the aſpin♀, the aſh☿, the ♃ alder, the birch♅, the beech♇, the oak♁, the ♄ linden, the mountain-aſh♆, the elm♄, the willow♂, the palm-willow♂, and ſeveral others: alſo in the caucaſean mountains a great variety of fruit-trees,

* Markovi. † Arbooſes. ‡ Tal; pinus picea, and pinus ſylveſtris: § Soſna; pinus abies. ‖ Pichta. ♂ Topol and Oſokor; populus alba and populus nigra. ♀ Oſſina; populus tremula. ☿ Yaſſen; fraxinus excelſior. ♃ Olcha; betula alnus. ♅ Bereſa; betula. ♇ Buk; fagus. ♁ Dup; quercus. ♄ Lipa; tilia. ♆ Rebina; fraxinus montan. ♄ Viæs and Ilina; ulmus campeſtris, ulmus ſativa, MILLER; and ulmus pumila. ♂ Tal and Iva; ſalix triandra, ſalix pentandra, ſalix fragilis, ſalix alba, ſalix caprea. ♂ Salix arenaria.

walnuts,

walnuts, and a kind of red wood*; in Siberia and in lofty mountains the larch †, the ſiberian cedar ‡, and balſam-poplar §, every where employing a great number of hands. Almoſt every villager is a carpenter, who builds his own houſe of balks or trunks of trees, makes wharfs on the navigable rivers, and whatever elſe belongs to the carpenter's trade. In the upper parts of the Oka and in its ſuperior rivers, and on the rivers to the left of the Volga, from the Unſha as far as the Kamma, their chief employment is to ſtrip the linden of its bark; the inner rind whereof ‖, they work up into baſkets for ſledges and carts, or make of it a light covering to their houſes, to the ſheds where the ſalt is kept in heaps, the little huts for ſleeping in upon the floats and veſſels that go down the rivers, &c. All ſorts of houſehold cups, baſkets, and the like, in common uſe throughout the whole empire, are made of it; and the making of what we call ruſſia mats ♪, trays, troughs, ladles, ſkimmers, ſpoons, &c. of the linden wood, is a great part of their buſineſs. A no leſs number gain their livelihood merely by preparing the birch-tar ♦, not to mention the occupation of ſo many in ſtripping all kind of trees of their bark for the ſeveral uſes of the tan-

* A ſpecies of the rhamnus. † Liſtvenitza; pinus larix. ‡ Kedr. § Topol; populus balſamifera. ‖ Lub. ♪ Ragoſhi. ♦ Dogat.

neries, particularly the yuft manufactories, and the burning of wood for charcoal, which is ſent to the mines, and the different ſtore-houſes belonging to government.

In the breeding of cattle, the countryman is directed by climate and paſturage. In regions where the cattle muſt be ſtalled and foddered during the winter, the boor has at moſt but a ſcanty herd; where they can ſtay out in the open ſteppe all the winter, or the greater part of it, as in the ſouth of Siberia, a man is often maſter of three hundred horſes, not fewer ſheep, ſomewhere about half the number of horned cattle, always a few ſwine, and a great deal of poultry; ſometimes geeſe and ducks.

The ruſſian horſes are of a middling ſize, with large heads, long flabby ears, not very handſome, but ſpirited, ſtrong, and hardy. The horned cattle are little and briſk. The cows give but little milk, and that is poor and thin. In little Ruſſia the oxen are uſed for draught. Every where about Archangel there is a fine breed of large cows, brought originally from Holland, and are not found to degenerate in the leaſt. The true ruſſian ſheep are diſtinguiſhable from the common ſort by their ſhort tail, not above the length of three inches. Their wool is coarſe, but better than that of the broad-tailed kirghiſtzian ſheep, and would probably improve in ſome of the dry ſteppes. There are nowhere any particular ſheep-folds;

folds; that is, there are no people who make it their ſole buſineſs to breed and fatten them. It is never the practice to milk the ewes. Hogs, dogs, and cats, are of the ordinary kinds.

The poultry are houſed all the winter in the cottage, under the hearth and the ſleeping-benches, for the ſake of having Eaſter-eggs. The gooſe is not in all places the common domeſtic ſpecies *; many keep wild geeſe †. They catch the young before they can fly, fatten them, and kill them in autumn. On the approach of ſpring they catch others, and thus ſave themſelves the winter's feed In Siberia at times one ſees the white-headed little gooſe ‡ tamed. Beſides, and inſtead of the domeſtic duck §, ſome cottagers keep the wood-duck ‖, the red duck ♪, the muſcovy duck θ, and ſeveral other ſpecies. Doves and pigeons neſtle about the villages, without owners. Turkey-fowl are very common among the poultry in the ſouthern parts of Ruſſia, and wherever there is a good market for them in the large towns.

The culture of bees is indeed principally the concern of the Baſhkirs in the Ural; but alſo is attended to in ſouthern Ruſſia by the ruſſian peaſants, pretty well, and in the baſhkirian method.

* Anſer domeſticus LINN. † Anſer ferus LINN. ‡ Kaſarka; anſer erytropus LINN. § Anas boſchas LINN. ‖ Anas tadorna LINN. ♪ Anas rutila PALL. θ Anas moſchata LINN.

In the northern diſtricts of Ruſſia and Siberia the chace is followed as a trade, particularly for thoſe animals whoſe ſkins are uſed as furs, eſpecially ſables and grey ſquirrels, for the wear of the ruſſian gentry in town and country. They roam about in companies; are frequently out for ſeveral weeks at a time in the wilds and deſarts, at the diſtance of ſeveral hundred verſts from their homes. In the fiſheries they are all employed in the ſeveral methods practiſed in other countries.

The carrier's trade is a great ſource of profit to the inhabitants of towns and villages contiguous to the high-roads. Many commodities are tranſported from one end of the empire to another by land; for inſtance, the chineſe goods from Kiachta to St. Peterſburg; european wines, engliſh beer, porter, and ſtaffordſhire ware, from St. Peterſburg or Archangel, to Irkutſk, &c. furs from Okhotſk, among others. The towns at the diſtance of from five hundred to a thouſand verſts aſunder ſerve as ſtations for changing the drivers and carriers, for example, from Kiachta, Irkutſk, Kraſnoyarſk, Tomſk, Tara, Ekatarinenburg, &c.

From the provinces of Archangel, which have little agriculture and few products, conſequently but little money, the men emigrate every ſpring to the Volga, to get employment in the tranſport-veſſels and the fiſheries, or to earn money in towns

towns or villages, as carpenters, bricklayers, plaiſterers, ſervants, labourers; with which they return in autumn, though ſometimes not till after two or three years abſence. Were it not for this practice, all the money muſt be drained out of ſuch provinces by the taxes, &c. Thoſe who work on the water, and in general all the common mechanics, are called burlaks.

The mixture of town and country profeſſions has been already noticed in general terms. In the different villages all over the empire we ſee the mechanical buſineſſes of towns carried on; but more eſpecially in the parts adjacent to the Volga, and in the vicinity of the governments of Moſco, Niſhney-Novgorod, and Kazan. It is ſcarcely poſſible to come to a village where there is not a ſmith, a taylor, a ſhoemaker, a tanner, a ſoap-boiler, a builder, a joiner, a houſe-painter, &c. and many of the boors follow theſe profeſſions as their main buſineſs. In numbers of villages almoſt all the boors are either boat and ſhip builders, wire-drawers, braziers, cotton-printers, comb-makers, coopers, dyers, turners, &c. On the Vetluga, a river to the left of the Volga, all the boors of ſeveral entire villages are turners and japanners; in ſome parts of the government of Archangel, numbers are employed in iron-ſmelting, and every where, among the inferior officers of the church, are found painters, limners, &c. All theſe and the like arts and pro-

feſſions are free to all; they deſcend from father to ſon; none has need to ſerve an apprenticeſhip to any calling, or to give proofs of his ability and ſkill, nor is liable to be puniſhed for bad work, unleſs a downright fraud is diſcoverable. Thus the want of workmen is eaſily ſupplied, and all their work is kept at a reaſonable price. But then, on the other hand, beſides that huſbandry is thus deprived of great numbers of hands, all ſecurity of having good work for your money is loſt; the man that is really maſter of his buſineſs will hardly get an equitable price for his work, and probably alſo much good materials will be ſpoiled. In many villages, particularly ſuch as belong to noblemen, are manufactories, on a larger or a ſmaller ſcale, of lacquered wares, ſilk, hardware, &c. which are under the inſpection of the college of manufactures. Pavlova, for inſtance, a pariſh belonging to count Scheremetof, ſituated on the Oka, contains two thouſand three hundred taxable boors, who are almoſt all ſmiths, and altogether compoſe a manufactory, though every one works for himſelf. They make padlocks, ſhears, knives, ſabres, wind-guns, muſket-locks, files, plane-irons, and other tools, tongs, pincers, &c. The quantity they make, the goodneſs of the work, and the cheap rate at which they are ſold, are truly worthy of admiration. Their goods go as far as Perſia.

The

The employments of the female ſex, both in town and country, vary but little from thoſe in the neighbouring countries. They ſee to the cleanlineſs of the houſe, ſpin, weave linen and coarſe cloth on frames, in quality but little inferior to what is brought from Germany; they bleach, full, and colour, knot the ends of the threads for a ſpan long, for table-cloths, neck-cloths, &c. make felt, bake bread every day, &c. In general they are kept cloſer to work, and fare harder than is cuſtomary among their european neighbours.

The country market-towns and hamlets are commonly open; are moſtly built in irregular ſtreets, with little kitchen-gardens and large yards to the houſes. They are ſituated on the banks of the rivers, ſince the digging of wells is not in practice: as in moſt parts pebbles are not to be had in any conſiderable quantity, the roads and ſtreets are frequently made of timbers, or bauks laid cloſe together having the upper-part made flat with the hatchet. They contain many, not large, but good-looking churches, moſtly of brick and plaiſter. The monaſteries in and near the towns, from their ſtrong walls, maſſy gates, and numerous church-towers, have the appearance of caſtles. The fortreſſes* diſperſed about the country, have ſeldom earth-ramparts, moſtly bat-

* Krepoſti.

teries of bauks laid one on the other, in the ſame manner as they build their houſes; and about theſe a low paliſade*. The cannons ſtand on the gates, and upon the angles of the ramparts or batteries on wooden carriages. Their deſign is to keep the tributary tribes in awe, and the neighbouring nomades from the borders. Oſtrogs, or houſes ſurrounded with a paliſade of upright pointed bauks, are either in towns, where they ſerve as priſons for criminals, or ſtand ſolitary in various parts of the country, for the ſame purpoſe as the fortreſſes.

Villages† of extremely various dimenſions, and pariſhes‡ are ſituated on the margin of rivers, brooks, lakes, and ſometimes on mere moraſſes and ſprings. The pariſhes, or church villages, are ſometimes very extenſive; and contain, it may be, five hundred or even a thouſand and more farms, from three to ſeven churches, many of brick, markets, and trafficking places. Large villages are frequently called ſlobodes; but many ſlobodes are leſs than church villages: the houſes are ranged in ſtraight ſtreets, and the ſtreets moſtly laid with timbers.

The proper ruſſian architecture is alike in towns and villages. A meſſuage conſiſts of a dwelling-houſe, with a few little ſtore-rooms, ſtables, and a ſtew, or hot-bath, by which the yard is incloſed.

* Nadolbi. † Derevni. ‡ Selo.

All

All theſe ſtructures are built of bauks, unhewn, placed on one another, and notched into each other at the four corners; ſometimes, though but rarely, on a brick foundation: theſe houſes are covered with boards, and when the owner can afford it, with oak ſhingles. The meaneſt dwelling-houſes conſiſt ſolely of one little room, which therefore has the door to the ſtreet. In it is an oven, taking up almoſt one fourth part of the whole ſpace; adjoining to it, of equal height with the oven, is a broad ſhelf of board*. The top of the oven and this ſhelf are the ſleeping places of the family. The light is admitted into theſe houſes through two or three holes in the walls furniſhed with ſhutters †, or through a little window of muſcovy-glaſs ‡, or only of bladder, oiled linen or paper. The ſmoke finds its way out as well as it can through theſe apertures in the wall. Theſe rooms, as may well be ſuppoſed, are as black as a chimney; and, as all the houſehold functions are performed in them, ſuch as baking, cooking, waſhing, &c. it is hardly poſſible to keep them clean. They are called, with the utmoſt propriety of ſpeech, § black-rooms. Under the floor of the room is a cellar ‖.

A complete town or country-houſe, for the ſake of having a cellar, ſtands raiſed a fathom above

* Potak. † Okoſhka. ‡ Sluda; mica membranacea.
§ Tſhornaia iſba. ‖ Pogreb.

the

the ground, and has a black-room and a white-room *, and between the two, a ſmall † paſſage. The black-room has frequently a chimney to the oven, and a window of glaſs or marienglas; but the white-room has the oven of tiles, or bricks covered with plaſter. The entrance, by a covered flight of wooden ſteps to the aforementioned paſſage, is from the back-yard, not from the ſtreet.

The magazines or ſtore-rooms ‡ are ſmall detached huts for proviſions, corn, in ſhort all the neceſſary ſtores. The ſtables are mere hovels or ſheds, open to the yard, or at moſt fronted with wattles, paid with mortar; in the latter caſe they are called pokleti. The bath-room § reſembles a detached black-room. It ſtands alone; has an oven like the other, ſmoke-holes, a water-tub, bruſhes, and benches raiſed one above another in the form of a ſcaffold. The corn-kilns ‖ are without the towns and villages. Places thus built muſt be very liable to raging fires; and, when once they break out, they rarely leave any thing unconſumed.

The houſehold-furniture, both in town and country, even among people of opulence, is very ſimple. In the room, which, with very few exceptions, is, at the ſame time, the kitchen, are a table, benches, the ſhelf, which ſerves for the dormitory ♪, and in the corner one or more holy

* Gornitza. † Seni. ‡ Ambar. § Ban.
‖ Ovini. ♪ Potak.

figures.

figures *. The rich have a great many of them, ſome with rims of beaten ſilver. Before theſe, lamps or wax-candles are kept conſtantly burning, or at leaſt on all the feſtivals, which amounts to nearly the ſame thing; ſo that many of theſe ſummer-rooms have the appearance of little chapels. Culinary utenſils, and thoſe for the uſe of the table, are as few as can well be conceived. As vehicles they make uſe of quite ſmall open one-horſe carts †, or ſomewhat larger, and half covered over like a child's cradle ‡, alſo with one horſe, without ſhafts, ſo that a collateral horſe can at any time be put to; both kinds of ſuch a ſimple mechaniſm, that almoſt any boor can make a new one or at leaſt repair the defects of the old one even upon the road. They are extremely light and commodious. — Splinters, like laths, of fir or very dry birch-wood § are much more commonly uſed for giving light in the room, after dark, than tallow-candles.

As the country towns, in general, progreſſively endeavour to imitate the Reſidence, one perceives from time to time the loftier houſes of wood or brick ſpring up, built in a ſuperior ſtyle, with faſhionable furniture within, gardens laid out in a regular method, &c.

The inferior houſes are much peſtered with domeſtic vermin; beſides the common ‖ houſe-rat

* Obraſſi. † Telegi. ‡ Kabitki. § Lutchinki. ‖ Kriſſa.

and

and mouſe *, they ſwarm with water-rats †, ‡ bats, large beetles § very frequent, crickets, ‖ bugs, fleas ∂ in abundance; various kinds of very troubleſome flies, gnats ε, moths, bull-moths, wood-lice; in ſouthern low places frogs, toads, and tad-poles; in Siberia little beetles θ; about the Tſheremtſhan, lapland beetles ξ.

The preparation for their victuals is ſo ſimple, that foreigners do not eaſily bring themſelves to reliſh it, but adhere to the cuſtomary way of dreſſing their food in their own countries. Freſh meats with watery ſauce, or baked paſties π of common cruſt, with minced-meat, or whole fiſh, fiſh with water and ſalt, without other ſauce, cabbage and roots chopped together, ϱ cabbage-ſoup, which is never omitted, meagre fiſh and fleſh ſoups, cool drinks φ, quas, with eggs, minced-meat, and leeks, pancakes μ, ſoup of ground hemp and linſeed, millet-ſoup and grits, turned milk ν with meal and ſour milk, &c. almoſt all ſeaſoned with onions, leeks, garlic, and ſometimes pimento, are their ordinary diſhes. Where Tartars dwell, they uſe likewiſe a few wild roots,

* Miſhe. † Kriſſa vodenaia. ‡ Letutſia miſhe. § Tarocani; blatta oriental. LINN. ‖ Klopi. ∂ Bloki. ε Dermeſtes lardarius LINN. θ Pruſſak; blatta aſiatica. ξ Blatta lapponica LINN. π Piroggi. ϱ Tſchi. φ Badvina. μ Blini. ν Kiſſel.

eſpe-

cially dog-tooth *, lily-roots †, and others. For the evening repaſt are ſerved up nuts, orchard-fruits, and the ſeveral wild fruits produced by the country round; blackberries, ſtrawberries, ſloes, &c. At an entertainment of their friends and acquaintance they provide a ſurpriſing variety of theſe kinds of diſhes. The lower ſort feed very poorly at all times, but particularly in the faſts. In large towns, the table in good houſes is becoming more luxurious and faſhionable from day to day.

The moſt common domeſtic drink is quas, a liquor prepared from pollard, meal, and bread, or from meal and malt, by an acid fermentation. It is cooling and well-taſted. Corn-ſpirits ‡, and rectified corn-ſpirits §, ſupply the place of wine. In good houſes, fruit-wines, raſberry-wine ‖, cherry-wine ♪, bilberry-wine θ, &c. from the juices of thoſe fruits, mead and brandy made by fermentation, which are pleaſant enough to the palate. Brown beer and metheglin are more in uſe than braga or white cloudy beer brewed from malted millet or wheat, with hops, and buſa or white unhopped wheat-beer. Tea is in very general uſe. The true ruſſian tea ξ is a decoction of honey, water, and ſpaniſh pepper, and drank warm. It

* Kandik; erythron. dens canis LINNÆI. † Sarana; lilion martagon LINN. ‡ Vina. § Vodka.
‖ Malinofka. ♪ Viſhnofka. θ Tſhernofka. ξ Sbitin.

taſtes

taſtes well and cheers the ſtomach. Many even of the common people drink chineſe tea, ſweetened with honey or ſugar. Perſons of diſtinction keep their tables ſupplied with meats and drinks entirely in the foreign taſte, hire french cooks, &c. as in other countries. Tobacco is but little uſed.

In the article of dreſs they adhere as faithfully, in the country towns and villages, to the manners of their fathers, as they do in food and lodging. The nobleſſe, all the officers in the civil department; and, beſides the light troops, the ſoldiery all over the empire, the merchants of the chief towns and thoſe who trade with them, the mine-owners, and almoſt all the people of quality throughout the empire, dreſs after the german faſhion; and the ladies, even in the remoteſt and moſt retired parts of the country, appear more modiſhly attired than would eaſily be imagined. The burghers and mercantile claſs, however, generally ſpeaking, ſtick cloſe to the national dreſs, no leſs than the peaſantry. Of this I ſhall ſpeak a little more particularly.

The men let their beards grow, which are commonly long and buſhy: the hair is cut and combed: their ſhirt * is ſhort, without any ſort of collar, and made of white, blue, or red linen. Their trouſers † are looſe, and tied below the knees. The ſhirt uſually hangs over the trouſers, and is

* Rubaſhka. † Stanni.

girt

girt round the waiſt with a ſtring. Stockings* are not ſo commonly worn by the lower claſs of people, as leg-wrappers†, which they tie about their feet and legs with packthread, ſo as to make them look very thick. Shoes‡ are worn by the better ſort, and mat-ſlippers§ by the common people; but half-boots‖ are in very general uſe. Over the ſhirt they wear a ſhort breaſt-cloth♪, or a veſt furniſhed with buttons. The coat♦ is made ſo big as to allow of one ſide lapping over the other before, with little buttons, cloſe ſleeves, and a collar. The ſkirt is made with gathers at the hips, and reaches below the calves of the legs, and the garment is girt about with a ſaſh that paſſes twice round the body. At the ſaſh♣ commonly hangs a long-bladed knife, in a ſheath. The covering for the head is either a flat fur-cap, with a narrow brim; or, in other places, a cap which forms a bag of a ſpan in depth, in which they keep their handkerchief on their head. In ſummer they go with flapped high-crowned dutch hats, ornamented with a narrow ribband of ſome gaudy colour. The materials of the dreſs vary according to the rank and circumſtances of the wearer; the rich wear fine broad cloth, ſometimes decorating the edges with gold cording, and little ſilver buttons for faſtenings: common people clothe themſelves in homeſpun cloth, and for

* Tſhulki. † Onutſhi. ‡ Baſhmaki. § Lapki.
‖ Sapagi. ♪ Fufeika. ♦ Sipoun. ♣ Kuſhak.

ſummer

ſummer in linen, made likewiſe at home. A well-dreſſed Ruſſian makes a very good figure. In winter the common people wear ſheep-ſkins, with the woolly ſide turned inwards; the better ſort put on furs of a higher price.

The habits of the clergy, as well in their every-day wear, as when officiating at the altar, are in the oriental ſtyle; the latter of different colours, often in brocade, moſtly very rich. The monks are always clad in black, and are alſo diſtinguiſhable by their high paſteboard caps, wound about with crape.

The women wear ſtockings or leg-wrappers, and ſhoes like the men, ſometimes likewiſe picked-pointed ſlippers. The lower claſs frequently go barefoot, or ſimply in ſlippers on their naked feet: their ſhifts are white; but in Daouria the female peaſants put on ſilk-coloured ſhifts of gauze or cotton: they are faſtened about the neck with a collar, and decorated with fancied ornaments of needle-work. The veſt * is cloſe about the neck without ſleeves, and ſits tight to the body down to the hips; from the hips it ſpreads without gathers and reaches down to the ſhoes: on the facing it is garniſhed with a thick row of little buttons from the top to the very bottom; it is however girt with a faſh, to which the bunch of keys is ſuſpended. The quality of the ſaraphan

* Saraphan.

is

is various according to circumſtances: of glazed linen, kitaika, ſilks, frequently edged with fur, or lined with it throughout. The dreſs of the lower ſort of females in winter is more complete, conſiſting of coarſe cloth, or ſheep ſkin, with ſleeves. Another dreſs is the uſual woman's gown, and a contuſhe without ſleeves *. The duſhagrek is alſo worn on the ſaraphan, without a gown. In the winter they wear furs made after the manner uſed in Poland, with pointed ſleeves. As this is uſually a preſent made by the bridegroom, and the beſt piece of dreſs, the common people, in order to make a ſhow of it, go, the whole ſummer through, to church, to make viſits, &c. in the pelice. They alſo wear necklaces of corals, pearls, or golden chains, ear-rings of precious ſtones, and decorate their fingers and wriſts with rings and bracelets.

The head-dreſs is ſomewhat different in different diſtricts. The girls in general wear their hair uncovered more than the women; the former plait it in three plaits, with ribbands and beads tied to the points of them. In Tver, Novgorod, &c. they wear a band acroſs the forehead, bedizoned with pearls and beads of various colours, which give the appearance of a tiara or open coronet. At Voronetz and the parts adjacent, both women and girls wear coifs made to fit the head, with cheek-pieces and treſſes. About the Oka,

* Duſhagrek.

at Murom, and the country round, the caps are in the form of an upright creſcent. In the governments of Moſco, Yaroſlaf, Kaluga, and the circumjacent parts, the coif has a ſtiff flap before, like a jockey-cap, which is decorated with treſſes, pearls, and various-coloured ſtones. On this they hang in the tartarian faſhion, a veil; but which they uſually keep thrown back. The veil is generally of ſilk, ſet off with gold or ſilver lace. In their ordinary dreſs, they tie on the veil over the hair, without any cap. In weſtern Ruſſia caps are in uſe that are a kind of fillet, with treſſes, pearls, and ſtones. Numbers wear caps having a ſtiff rim one or two inches broad, like a ſmall ſkreen or a flapped hat. Perſons of conſequence, in towns, wind pieces of ſilk about their heads in ſuch manner as to let the hair hang down in ringlets from under it; and theſe head-dreſſes have very much the reſemblance of a high turban. A complete woman's attire is expenſive, but remarkably handſome.

Paint* is as neceſſary an article in the dreſs of a ruſſian lady, as linen. The freſheſt and ruddieſt young woman of the place puts on both white and red; and, as this practice is prejudicial to natural beauty, therefore ſuch antiquated dames as would not appear hideous are forced to continue it. Fine white paint is made of pulverized

* Rumiana.

marcaſite; more commonly white lead *. The rouge in the ſhops ſeems to be compounded of florentine lake and talc, with powder of marcaſite; red tiffany is alſo very much worn. The village-toaſts gather the roots of onoſma echioides LINN. or of lithoſpermum arvenſe, which, after being dried, they moiſten with their tongue, and then rub their cheeks with it; or they extract the colour with boiling water and alum from the rind of theſe roots. Some rub their cheeks with river-ſponge †, till the ſkin is ſufficiently thinned or inflamed for being tranſparent to the blood. From the toilet, however, we will now retire with awe, and preſume no farther to pry into its myſteries.

The Ruſſians are a race much hardened by climate, education, and habits of life, having their own peculiar uſages, which have a greater affinity with the aſiatic than the european, only without the effeminacy. They ſleep on the floor, the hard benches, or the boards placed ſhelf-wiſe for that purpoſe; in the ſummer contentedly lying down in the open air, in the field, or the yard of the houſe, as they do in the winter on the top of the oven, without beds, or merely on a piece of felt, ſometimes with and often without any pillow, either under a thin covering or in their clothes. After performing their evening devotions, accompanied with frequent proſtrations and croſſings,

* Belila. † Badiaga; ſpongia fluviatilis.

before the ſacred figures of the ſaints, they betake themſelves early to reſt, and riſe again betimes in the morning, waſh themſelves, renew their pious oriſons, and proceed with alacrity to buſineſs. Into the houſes of the great and opulent, even at a diſtance from chief towns, feather-beds and late hours, with other luxuries, have long ſince found their way.

Whenever acquaintance meet together, their term of greeting is, Zdravſtvui *! or ſometimes, Zdarovui †! accompanied with ſhaking of hands, taking off the cap, bowing, and often with kiſſing, which is much in practice with both ſexes. Even the loweſt of the people greet one another with great civility. Inferiors kiſs their ſuperiors on the breaſt, and of people ſtill more elevated above them they kiſs the border of the garment; and, when the difference is very great, they fall down and ſtrike their forehead upon the ſhoe of the great man. When they have any thing to requeſt, they aſſume a tone and geſture, as if they were imploring mercy. It is indecorous to ſpeak loud in the preſence of ſuperiors; and if any one happen to do ſo, he is preſently chid by the byſtanders, with ‡ Do not bawl! When a man deſigns to honour his gueſts, he lets his wife and daughters appear, full-dreſſed, who kiſs the gueſts,

* Which may be rendered, All hail! or God ſave thee! or God betide thee! — Salve! Sit ſaluti!

† Health! — Soſpes! Sanus! ‡ Nekritſhi.

and

and hand them what they want at the entertainment. They ſeem to vie with one another in the profuſions of hoſpitality. Old age is univerſally honoured. On the breaking up of company, they depart, ſaying, Proſhai*! and never omitting the valedictory kiſs. On the ſlighteſt interruption or alteration to the ordinary courſe of whatever they are about, at eating, drinking, ſneezing, at a ſudden ſtart, at the ſight of a particular place, of a church, &c. they make the ſign of the croſs with the fingers, on the forehead, the ſtomach, and the two ſhoulders, bowing ſeveral times, and adding, with a deep-fetched ſigh: The Lord have mercy†!

They have uſually two meals in the day; in the forenoon about nine o'clock, and in the afternoon at three. The family at theſe times eat all together; and, when it is numerous, firſt the males and afterwards thoſe of the other ſex. They allow themſelves but a ſhort time at table, and are eaſy and cheerful. Even among the inferior people the table-linen, platters, and veſſels are kept in great cleanlineſs. If ſtrangers ſit down with them there are very copious potations. Intoxication is not diſgraceful, and even among people of good condition, if a lady be overtaken in liquor, it is no ſubject of reproach. They are never quarrelſome or ſcurrilous in their cups, but friendly, jovial, courteous, ſpeak in praiſe of the abſent,

* Farewell. † Goſpodi pomilui!

and boaſt of their friendſhip; and thoſe that are not able to ſtand, find ready aſſiſtance from thoſe that can. On journies, merchants and others take their food with remarkably few formalities. In towns and great village-ſtations, women ſit in the ſtreet, near public-houſes, with tables having roaſt and boiled meat, fiſh, piroggees, cabbage-ſoup, cucumbers, bread, and quas, conſequently a ſuperb and every where a cheap repaſt, which is taken ſtanding, and always accompanied with a glaſs or two of brandy.

Holidays * are kept in idleneſs and wanton jollity. No one neglects to keep his birth and name's day, and thoſe of his family. The day is opened by devout attendance on maſs; then the perſon whoſe feſtival it is gives an entertainment of the beſt he can provide to his friends, who, to ſhew their attention to him, preſent themſelves uninvited at his houſe. The poor make their maſters and patrons a preſent of a loaf of bread, a few apples, or ſome trifle of that ſort, in order to get a return in money to enable them to entertain their friends, which they faithfully employ to that purpoſe, and generally finiſh the day with a hearty drunken-bout.

To hot and cold bathing they are ſo habituated from their earlieſt infancy that the practice is indiſpenſable. They uſually go into the hot-bath

* Praſniki.

once

once a week, beſides other frequent occaſions, ſuch as, after a ſlight indiſpoſition, hard work, on returning from a journey, and the like. They uſe the bath very hot, heating the room with large ſtones made glowing red, and raiſing a vapour by repeatedly throwing water upon them; the room all the while being ſo tight that no particles of heat or vapour can tranſpire. The bather lies extended naked upon a mat thrown on one of the ſhelves of the ſcaffold already deſcribed, which the higher he aſcends the greater the heat he feels. When he has thus lain perſpiring for ſome time, the waiter of the bath, generally a female, comes and waſhes his body all over with hot water, ſcourges and rubs him with bunches of leafy birch, wipes him with cloths, and then leaves him to lie and ſweat as long as he chooſes. Numbers of them run from the hot bath into the cold water flowing by, and in winter roll themſelves in the ſnow, without deriving any bad conſequences from it.

Oaths and curſes are but little in uſe: by *God! is their commoneſt aſſeveration. Obſcene and ambiguous, abuſive and ludicrous expreſſions are very uſual among them. Flattering terms are in great uſe; for inſtance, to an elderly man, Batuſhka, good father; to an older man, Dedufhka, good grand-papa; to a matronly woman, Ma-

* Ye Bog!

tuſhka, good mother! which term is even uſed to the empreſs; to a girl, Duſhinka! my little ſoul! to a boy, Golubtſchick! my little dove! &c. Good brother* is moſtly uſed towards inferiors. Perhaps it may be better made in Engliſh, by Good friend! or honeſt fellow!

The intercourſe between the ſexes is more free than elſewhere, particularly in the country, on account of the contracted ſpace of their habitations and ſleeping room, their baths, the ſimplicity of their converſation, and their artleſs ſongs. The behaviour of huſbands toward their wives is, in general, comparatively with european manners, rough and auſtere. The wives muſt work hard, and are often obliged to be the tame ſpectators of their huſband's intemperance and irregularities without daring to complain; but to this they are ſo early accuſtomed that they are ſeldom heard to vent a murmur even while ſmarting under very tyrannical treatment. In larger towns, however, and even among people of condition, the lady is in a quite contrary predicament; and they are either very much ſlandered or many a kind huſband ſometimes gets a rap of the ſlipper. It is a maxim with parents of the common claſs, never to become dependent on their children; and therefore to keep the management of the houſe in their own hands, till they die. Indeed the laws

* Bratetz,

of

of the land are more favourable to widows and mothers than they are in other countries.

With ſubſtantial people the marriage-contract is made with mercantile punctuality; the common ſort enter into the nuptial ſtate, for its peculiar purpoſes, as young as they can; and, as houſekeeping is not expenſive, and as education is neither attended with coſt nor trouble, they live as much at their eaſe as before. The betrothing is performed with eccleſiaſtical rites, generally eight days previous to the marriage, and is indiſſoluble. During this interval, the bride is only viſited by the bridegroom, and the girls of her acquaintance, who amuſe her with ſinging. On the laſt evening the young women bring the bride into the hot-bath, where they plait and tie up her hair, all the while ſinging ballads deſcriptive of her future happineſs.

The marriage is ſolemnized in the church, before the altar, whither they proceed, with the figure of ſome ſaint carried before them. During the ceremony a crown is put on each of their heads. The prieſt, with due forms, changes their rings, reads to them an admonition of their reciprocal duties, gives them to drink of a cup in token of the preſent union of their fortunes, and diſmiſſes them with his bleſſing.

At their return from church the father of the bride preſents the young couple with a loaf of bread and ſome ſalt, accompanied with a wiſh that

that they may never know the want of either, for which they thank him on their knees. They then ſit down to ſupper, and when the ſhift that the bride is to put on has been inſpected, the new-married pair are put to bed. This ſhift is produced the next day to the gueſts, who, upon ſeeing the tokens of virginity upon it, felicitate the mother of the bride on that fortunate event. All things conſidered, it need not be mentioned that theſe tokens never fail to appear. This day paſſes with far more jollity than the former, as the young woman, being now freed from all reſtraint, can bear a part in the ſports and entertainments of the company.

The national diverſions of the Ruſſians on holidays, at weddings, and other occaſions of feſtivity, are very diverſified, and have great reſemblance with thoſe cuſtomary among the Perſians, the Arabians, and the Ægyptians. Their muſic is more uſually vocal than inſtrumental. On the whole globe we ſhall ſcarcely meet with a country where the ſong is more jovial and univerſal than in Ruſſia. They all ſing from the child to the hoary head of age, and on all occaſions, old women excepted, even while at the moſt laborious and toilſome work, and generally with all their might; the country-roads re-echo with the ſongs of the drivers, the village-ſtreets with the merry voices of the girls, and the drinking-houſes are never without a concert. Their ſongs are ſimple recita-

recitations, antient or modern; on the ſubject of love, nature, and tales of chivalry, giants, and heroes, frequently lewd, and their melodies uniform and monotonous, but ſometimes pleaſing enough. The little groups of girls ſitting together of an evening and ſinging* are very entertaining. The men ſing, from the fullneſs of their hearts, exploits of ſoldiers or kozaks in time of war, or a thouſand other ſubjects that will ſuit their own ſtyle of compoſition and their own tunes and their thoughtleſs merry diſpoſitions, reciting ſometimes ſingle words or lines from different ſongs, in every tune and for whole hours together.

The moſt complete vocal muſic is what we hear in their churches on ſundays and holidays; which, as the church allows of no inſtrumental muſic in divine worſhip, is performed by ſingers expreſsly taught, moſtly brought from the Ukraine for the principal churches, and gives great ſatisfaction even to people of taſte. The ſubſtance is ſlavonian poetry; the notes† are expreſſed by points, after the very old faſhion, for four voices. The preſent choral muſic is moſtly by Mottete.

The moſt common and the moſt peculiar inſtrument of the nation is the cow-horn. It is a cornet of from one to four feet in length, of wood or tree-bark, from which the ſtout lungs of a boor can produce a ſound ſomewhat ſimilar to

* Igriſhi. † Irmelogies.

the

the human voice. The balalaika, of the bandour kind, of very antient ſlavonian origin, is a common inſtrument both with the Ruſſians and Tartars; according to Niebuhr it is alſo much uſed in Ægypt and Arabia. The body of it is an oblong ſemicircle, about a ſpan in length, with a neck, or finger-board, of four ſpans. It is played on with the fingers like the bandour, or guitar; but has only two wires, one of which gives a monotonous baſs, and by the other the piece is produced. Under the touch of able fingers, accompanied by a good voice, it ſounds agreeably enough; and therefore it is not unfrequently ſeen in the hands of people of faſhion. The gudak is a miſerable violin with three ſtrings, which are all touched by a ſhort bow, though only one of them is fingered; it is not pleaſing to every ear. The dutka conſiſts of two parallel reed-pipes, each with three holes, differing in their notes up to an octave, ſo that it ſtrikes the hearer as if two were played on it. On this antiquated inſtrument only ſimple tunes can be produced. The rilek is a common village-lyre; and the valinka a diminutive pair of bagpipes. The guſli is a horizontal harp with wires, played on with the fingers, and is competent to any piece of muſic. As it is a pleaſing inſtrument even without the accompaniment of the voice, it is much in requeſt at the tables of country-noblemen, the overſeers of the mines,

mines, and others. The cornet* is chiefly in uſe among the ſailors and boatmen for aiding their voice in ſinging, as they reſt upon their oars in falling down the current of the rivers, and in ſhort when they have nothing better to do. It is rather a kind of ſhawm, of birch-bark, with ſix finger-holes, and a mouth-piece like that of a trumpet. The ſailors make a jingling noiſe with two bunches of little bells, in time with their muſic.

Dancing† is a diverſion every where followed. Even the common people, who here are not apt to become ſtiff with work, dance to admiration. They generally dance to the voice. The univerſal dance of the country conſiſts in frequent genuflexions of the man, and a gentle ſtep in proper cadence of the woman. It is pantomimic and very engaging. The woman lays her arms on her breaſt croſſwiſe, beckons to the man with her fingers, ſhrugs her ſhoulders, and glides by him hanging down her head, with ſome ſide glances, without giving of hands. In another dance, the man and woman ſhew a repugnance to each other; they reciprocally paſs by with averted and diſdainful looks; make faces of deriſion at one another as their backs are towards them; turn about and ſhew by their looks and geſtures an ambiguous averſion. The dove-dance‡ exhibits an imitation

* Raſhok. † Dantzavat. ‡ Golubetz.

of

of the cooing airs of turtle-doves or lovers. Generally one ſtands ſtill to the other; preſently the man dances about with vehement motion, while the woman proceeds in gentle and delicate movements. Poliſh dances are alſo much in uſe, not only in the Ukraine, but in moſt other parts of the country, likewiſe during the winter evening-companies* are very common. They conſiſt in abſurd and ridiculous maſquerades by young people. They ſometimes, though but rarely, put on diſguiſes, humourouſly repreſent groteſque and romantic ſtories, imitate particular perſons and animals, and uſually indulge themſelves in coarſe and licentious buffooneries. After theſe comedies, or maſquerades, which are ſometimes omitted, the party amuſe themſelves with ſinging, dancing, playing for ſtakes, and always with eating and drinking.

They are very much attached to gymnaſtic diverſions. In ſevere winter-nights the ladies make ſledge-parties, in which there is always much vehement ſinging. The ſwing and round-abouts are diverſions of the eaſter holidays. The former is carried to great perfection; five or ſix people ſtand or ſit, one behind another on a plank, which is ſwung to a great height. Inſtead of a plank, ſome of theſe ſwings have wooden lions, ſwans, bears, coaches, chairs, ſofas, &c. The

* Vetcherinki. Igriſtzi.

girls

girls divert themſelves in ſummer in jumping on a board, reſting in the middle on a block of wood as a fulcrum; one ſtanding on each end of this board, they alternately bound one another up to a ſurpriſing height. The diverſion of the ice-hills has been deſcribed in a former ſection of this work. Wreſtling and boxing* are another diverſion, though very aukwardly performed. Ringing the bells, on church and court holidays, is a ſpecies of exerciſe of which they are remarkably fond; but they produce nothing like harmony from them. The ſole excellency conſiſts in ſtriking the clappers the oftenеſt.

In the country the women are generally delivered in the bath-room, and the births are for the moſt part happy and eaſy. The prieſt uſually gives the child the name of the ſaint that ſtands on the day in the church-kalendar. Every one on viſiting the lying-in woman kiſſes her, and privately ſlips a preſent in money under her pillow. Dependents make uſe of theſe opportunities for complimenting their ſuperiors, who do not accept of preſents.

A careleſs diſpoſition, and a way of life naturally auſtere, an exemption from very toilſome labours, and the uſe of the bath, but eſpecially a clear and bright atmoſphere, peculiar to Ruſſia and Siberia, keep them in conſtant health, gene-

* Kulaſhnoi boia.

rally

rally to a good old age. Even the ſick have ſeldom recourſe to medicine. The country has but few, and no violent diſeaſes peculiar to it. Sometimes in ſummer a ſort of phthiſicky complaint* appears, eſpecially in the parts bordering on the Irtiſh, affecting both men and cattle. It firſt ſhews itſelf by a bile on ſome part of the body; and though mortal without help, is not contagious. A certain cure has of late been diſcovered for it, by making an inciſion in the bile, quite into the ſound fleſh, and then dreſſing the wound with tobacco and ſal ammoniac. In the confines of the upper Lena, ſwelled-necks are common; young perſons, however, in places that have better water, eſcape them. About the Caſpian they are ſubject to a horrid, ſlow-conſuming, mortal leproſy, called the Krimean-diſeaſe †, alſo the Blackſickneſs ‡; but this is not frequent.

Several of their domeſtic remedies, require a patient fortitude truly heroic. A mixture of garlic, onions, and ſpaniſh pepper, with brandy, is an univerſal medicine for all diſtempers. Venereal complaints, which are ſo very common, are here but little infectious, and not frequently even by coition, are cured without any preparation, by mercurial ſublimate, verdegris, and vitriol, kneaded and baked in bread-cruſt; nevertheleſs great numbers retain injuries from it for

* Yaſſua. † Krimſkaia boleſna. ‡ Tſhornaia nemotſh.

the

the reſt of their lives, and not a few fall early victims to death. Wolf's bane* and ſneeze-wort† are taken againſt almoſt all accidents, in large doſes by eye-meaſure. Moxa‡ of mug-wort-flocks, are often burnt on the belly for pains of the bowels, and on the joints, for aching bones.

The dead are ſincerely and long lamented by their relations and friends; but, from a natural repugnance to the idea of death, they uſe but little ceremony with the corpſe. They put o nit a ſhrowd, then lay it in a coffin, in which it is brought, open, only covered with a pall, to the grave, attended by prieſts, chanting hymns, and bearing croſſes and lighted tapers in their hands. Being come to the place of interment, the attendants take leave of the body by a kiſs, give it a bleſſing, then faſten up the coffin, let it down into the grave, and ſhovel in the earth. On theſe occaſions the nobles and the rich put on black, but others make no change in their dreſs. The lower ſort bury their dead in their ordinary clothes. Such as die on the barks upon the rivers are taken to the ſhore by their companions, and there put in the ground, without any other ceremony. Great funeral feaſts and mourning in black clothes are not cuſtomary; among the few diſhes they ſerve about, one is uſually a frumenty

* Aconitum lycoctonum LINN. † Veratrum. ‡ Yadtin.

of ſoaked wheat, in reference to the paſſage concerning a ſprouting wheat-corn in John, xii. 24. In great towns the funeral obſequies are conducted, among people of condition, as they are in other countries.

At the new year is annually held a feaſt of the dead *, on which every body viſits the grave of his relations, lays ſome victuals upon it, and hears maſs, in payment for which the prieſts get the victuals. Profligates, ſuch as have come to a miſerable end, and all who have died without the ſacrament, were formerly thrown, without inhumation, into a hut for that purpoſe †, and, on the Thurſday before Whitſunday ‡, were buried by the clergy, who ſaid maſſes for their ſouls, attended by the inhabitants of the place. At preſent greater indulgence is ſhewn to theſe poor wretches.

The antient orthodox Greek religion, to which the whole nation is attached, is univerſally acknowledged in doctrine and diſcipline. We ſhall here ſpeak only of its externals. The churches and the ſacerdotal veſtments are very magnificent. The people at large are very ſtrict in the obſervance of the outward forms of worſhip, attendance on maſs, keeping the faſts, (which take up one-third part of the year,) performance of domeſtic devotions morning and evening, confeſſion, re-

* Raditeli ſabol. † Bogdoi dom. ‡ Sedinik.

ceiving

ceiving the ſacrament, &c. To build churches is a meritorious act; hence it is, that even the ſmalleſt towns have ſuch a number of theſe ſtructures, and ſome of them handſome. As, by reaſon of the ſeverity of the winters, it is neceſſary to heat the churches, there are frequently two churches in one church-yard, a winter and a ſummer church; at other times they conſiſt of two ſtories, uſed to the ſame purpoſes. The clergy are held in great honour, and are extremely tolerant towards all other profeſſions of faith. The titles of metropolitan and archbiſhop are not attached to the ſee, but are at preſent merely perſonal diſtinctions conferred by the ſovereign, which give the poſſeſſors no additional power, and ſcarcely any precedence. Every one, on meeting a prieſt, kiſſes his hand, in return for which he receives his bleſſing with the ſign of the croſs: this cuſtom is now, however, pretty much confined to country places. Paſſion-week is kept by every perſon in great apparent ſolemnity, with frequent ceremonies of devotion, to which they are invited by ſlow and diſmal ſtrokes of the church-bells: but the eaſter-week is paſſed pretty nearly as in ſome other countries, in various diverſions, drunkenneſs, and debauchery. At this feſtival it is the univerſal cuſtom all over the empire to preſent each other with an egg, accompanied with a kiſs, at the ſame time ſaying: Chriſt

is riſen*! to which the other replies: He is riſen indeed†!

In ſuperſtitious notions and practices the Ruſſians are as little deficient as their neighbours. Many of them, as well as among us, believe in ghoſts, apparitions, and hobgoblins, and are not fond of inhabiting the houſes of near relations deceaſed; whence it happens that many houſes are left to fall in ruins, or paſs into foreign hands at a very cheap rate. A houſe too, whoſe owner fell into poverty, or was otherwiſe unfortunate, will not readily find a purchaſer, becauſe it has ejected its maſter. On the Thurſday before Whitſuntide the girls celebrate the feſtival of the ſlavonian goddeſs Lada and her ſon Dida, with ſinging, dancing, and decorating a birch-buſh with garlands of ribbons; which they afterwards throw with great ſolemnity into a river, and learn, from the figures the ribbons aſſume in the current, who they ſhall wed, and what their fates ſhall be in marriage. On the fifth of January they go by night into a croſs-ſtreet, or into a cellar, which is called, To go hearing‡, and fancy they hear, in every ſound, the prediction of their deſtiny. The day after Chriſtmas is ſolemnized by the midwives, becauſe the virgin Mary's midwife had a great hand in the redemption of the world. In Perme, and other places, they believe that ſome witches,

* Chriſtos voſkreſt! † Voiſtinnoi voſkreſt! ‡ Sluſchit.

by

by their incantations, have the power of depriving the female ſex of their right to become mothers*, but that others can preſerve it inviolably to them; therefore brides always apply to the latter. As wives are ſometimes ſlighted by their huſbands on that account, paramours find their advantage in this conceit. But to reckon up all the ſuperſtitious fancies of this nature would be both endleſs and unprofitable. Their domovois are our fairies, and their vodovois our water-goblins or wizzards of the ſtream.

The Poles, related to the Ruſſians by deſcent and language, have alſo in their bodily frame ſo much ſimilarity with them, as would make it plainly perceptible that the two nations originate from the ſame ſtock, if the difference of the national character were not ſo very ſtriking. On the whole the Poles are of a larger, drier, and more fleſhy caſt; their countenance is open and friendly; their bodily ſtructure is well-proportioned, and only the neck is commonly thicker with them than is uſual among the other european nations. The men of all ranks wear whiſkers, and ſhave their heads in ſuch manner that only a lock of hair remains on the crown; a particularity which gives them in the eyes of other Europeans a foreign and almoſt an aſiatic appearance. The female ſex are famed for their beauty over all the

* Sportſhini.

north; to the peculiar advantages of figure, they have alſo a delicate ſhape, ſmall elegant feet and fine long hair. The ſame flexibility, which we noticed among the Ruſſians, is alſo obſervable among the Poles: their looks in common intercourſe are far more animated and lively.

Firm and laſting as the corporal ſtructure of the Poles ſeems to be, and great as the tendency of their education and way of life is to harden the common people; yet the hoſt of diſeaſes to which this nation is liable is comparatively greater than that of their neighbours. Whether it be the quality of the atmoſphere, which is rendered unwholeſome by the numerous and large moraſſes, and by the ſituation of the carpathian mountains receives a peculiar acridity; whether it ariſes from the want of good potable water, or the uncleanly way of living ſo conſpicuous in the majority of the inhabitants: it is, however, a ſingular circumſtance, that Poland is viſited by more violent and malignant diſeaſes than the more northerly Ruſſia, and that they are there more infectious and dangerous.

In the poliſh provinces which now belong to the ruſſian empire, eſpecially in Volhynia and the Ukraine, where the country, however, in compariſon with Lithuania, is elevated and dry, diſorders of the breaſt, intermittent fevers, ſmall-pox, worms, plica polonica, itch, and venereal infections, are the moſt current diſeaſes. Epidemical

mical diſeaſes are rare; but none of them commit ſuch depredations as the ſmall-pox, which is partly to be aſcribed to bad treatment and diet, but principally to the careleſſneſs of the people. Little as the common Turks give themſelves any concern to guard againſt the plague; not a whit more does the poliſh peaſant take any pains to ward off the infection of the moſt dangerous ſmall-pox. The ſick and healthy lie together with the cattle in a very ſmall incloſure; the compreſſed exhalations, and the uſually immoderate heat of the room, impart to this malady ſuch a degree of malignity, that it ſeems little ſhort of a miracle that any one of theſe unfortunate creatures ſhould eſcape with his life.

The ravages of this diſorder are, even in regard to the rude climate, every where great. We may confidently ſtate the mortality at ſix or ſeven out of ten; and ſuch as eſcape this fate are almoſt always cruelly disfigured. Hence it is alſo that no country in Europe ſo ſwarms with blind people as Poland. If we except thoſe who are become ſo by the plica polonica, the remainder may impute this dreadful calamity to the ſmall-pox*. — Inoculation is only practiſed in large towns, in the country it is almoſt entirely unknown; and where the introduction of it has been here and

* De la Fontaine, miſcellaneous diſſertations on phyſic and ſurgery relating to Poland. Breſlau, 1792, 8vo. p. 111, 112.

there attempted, it has been conſtantly oppoſed by the national prejudice ſo obſtinate as not to be conquered.

Preternatural births are extremely rare; of eight hundred or a thouſand there ſcarcely happens one where any obſtetrical art is neceſſary.

The venereal diſeaſe in great towns is in the ratio of ſix to ten; ſo generally has this dreadful evil ſpread. In the country it is proportionately not leſs prevalent; once it happened that of one hundred recruits eighty were infected. — Of the various modifications of this ſubtile peſtilence, none are more frequently obſerved than venereal ulcers in the noſe; and there is perhaps no country in Europe where we meet with more perſons without noſes than in Poland. The ſevere northern climate, and the ſuppreſſed perſpiration which is almoſt always a conſequence of it, exaſperate this diſeaſe ſo much that even one brought by a Pole from a warmer country is eaſier to cure than one caught in Poland*.

All the diſtempers which we have now been mentioning, Poland has in common with the other nations of our part of the globe; but the matted hair is an affliction altogether peculiar to that country; and therefore claims, on this account, as well as that of its very general diffu-

* De la Fontaine, miſcellaneous diſſertations on phyſic and ſurgery relating to Poland. Breſlau, 1792. 8vo. p. 129—144.

ſion,

ſion, to be rather more circumſtantially mentioned here.

The matted-locks, clotted hair, or plica polonica, is an endemial diſeaſe in Poland and ſome of the adjacent countries*, in which the morbid matter critically ſettles in the hair, and clots it together in ſo peculiar a manner, that it cannot by any means be diſentangled or combed out.

* This diſeaſe is now traced from the ſource of the Viſtula (to which it is indebted for its name) into the carpathian mountains, Lithuania, White and Red Ruſſia, and Tartary. — When and in what region it may have firſt ariſen, cannot be preciſely aſcertained. It was unknown to the Greeks, the Romans, and the Arabians. Some modern writers place its origin in Europe in the year 1387, and affirm that it was brought into Poland by the Tartars. — If this aſſertion were actually proved, it would amply repay our pains to examine why the clotted-locks have not become endemial alſo in Ruſſia by means of the Tartars, as it is well known that a great part of this empire was long under tartarian ſupremacy, and the intercourſe between the two nations was ſo great. At any rate it is a remarkable phænomenon that ſo infectious a diſeaſe, conſidering the cloſe vicinity and the conſtant traffic carried on between Poland and Ruſſia, and the great ſimilarity in mode of life, climate, and aliment, has not found its way among the latter people. Conſequently, the ground of it muſt lie either in the local-quality of Poland, (which however de la Fontaine abſolutely denies,) or there muſt be ſome circumſtance in the ruſſian way of living, which diminiſhes or annihilates their diſpoſition to this malady. May not perhaps the vapour-baths produce this beneficial effect? At leaſt we are aſſured on good authority that warm vapours and medicines for promoting perſpiration are among the moſt neceſſary requiſites to a cure.

The

The matter of the diſeaſe, however, does not always depoſit itſelf in the hair alone, but ſettles ſometimes alſo in the nails of the fingers and toes.

This dangerous and loathſome diſeaſe ſpares neither age nor ſex, nor condition, not even foreigners newly arrived in Poland; nay, infants at times bring it with them into the world. The lower claſſes of people are however the moſt ſubject to it, boors, beggars, and jews. In Volhynia and the Ukraine this diſeaſe is among the common people in the ratio of two or three to ten; among the nobility and the ſubſtantial burghers, as two to thirty or forty. Many thouſands of perſons paſs their whole lives entirely free from it; others have it ſeveral times, and ſometimes even at regular periods. Hair of all colours is equally liable to it; but moſtly the light-brown. The ſofter the hair the more eaſily does the morbid matter paſs into it. The diſeaſe is alſo infectious; it is either innate, or communicated by nurſes, by ſleeping in the ſame bed with an infected perſon, or by clothes. — Even brutes are expoſed to the plica polonica, eſpecially thoſe which have long hair.

The proximate cauſe of this diſeaſe is a ſort of humour with which phyſicians are ſtill unacquainted, and is not leſs difficult to be aſcertained than the venereal, the ſcorbutic, &c. Thus much however is apparent, that it is a peculiarly viſcous and acrid matter, which has its ſeat in the lymph,

lymph, and makes a depoſit in the hair or the nails, which depoſition is to be regarded as a criſis. The cauſes of this matter it is not eaſy to aſcertain; for neither air, nor water, nor food, ſeem directly to contribute any thing to the enucleation of this diſeaſe; cleanlineſs and frequent combing of the hair are no ſecurity againſt it; neither do other diſtempers ſeem to take part in the cauſes of this affliction, though they greatly exaſperate it when the patient is at the ſame time attacked by them.

The tranſit of the matter of the plica polonica into the hair happens when it is ſeparated from the common maſs of the juices and is ſufficiently prepared for a criſis. Ere this criſis comes on, the patient has frequently much to ſuffer; but ſometimes the clots form without his feeling the leaſt previous indiſpoſition. If the phyſician be not ſo fortunate as to draw off the morbid matter into the hair or into the nails, or this be not effected by nature herſelf, then the caſe of the patient is extremely dangerous: for if the morbid matter fall on any of the nobler parts, on the brain, or the lungs, or the ſtomach, it brings on the moſt cruel of mortal diſeaſes; if it flow to the eyes, it cauſes inflammations, cataracts, &c. if it be ſo acrimonious and corroſive as to attack the marrow in the bones, then the diſeaſe is generally incurable, and the patient dies in the moſt excruciating torments.

As

As ſoon as the criſis has happened to the hair or nails, all bad ſymptoms ceaſe, and the patient gets well by degrees; but if the ſymptoms return, it is then a ſure ſign that there is ſtill a portion of the matter remaining in the juices, which ſhould likewiſe paſs into thoſe parts. It frequently happens, when the morbid matter is too copious to be entirely abſorbed by the hairs, that they ſnap in the middle, and it oozes out between them in great quantity, when the patient is plagued with vermin to ſuch a degree as cannot be deſcribed. But that the hair ſhould be ſo diſtended that blood flows out of it, as ſome antient authors have aſſerted, is by no means the fact. — When the clotted-lock is completely formed, benignant nature takes care to repel the miſchief by producing new hairs, which forcibly, as it were, ſeparate the clotted-lock from the head. This happens, though but ſeldom, in a few days or weeks, but ordinarily in the ſpace of from one to four months, but ſometimes not till the next ſpring.

The method of treating this loathſome and often extremely dangerous diſeaſe, is naturally very various, according to the different ſymptoms and courſe of it. Both inward and outward remedies muſt be employed. At its very firſt appearance endeavours muſt be uſed to thin and mitigate the tough acrimonious matter to fit it for paſſing into the hair. As ſoon as the criſis comes on, medicines that promote perſpiration muſt be applied,

applied, unleſs there be any degree of fever. When the criſis is once over, there is no longer any reaſon for apprehending that the morbid matter will return to the maſs of blood; excepting in the caſe when a clotted-lock is cut off, into which the morbid matter had not yet fully paſſed *. The principal outward remedies are warm vapour bathing and waſhing the hair with vegetable decoctions. — When all outward and inward applications to diſentangle the clotted-lock have been tried to no purpoſe, inoculation will effect it by cauſing the patient to put on a

* The clotted-lock may be cut off without any danger, when it hangs to ſound freſh-grown hair, and has loſt its peculiar ſtench, fat, and gloſs. For being quite ſecure about it, at firſt let only ſome of the points be cut off daily; if no bad effects enſue, it may then be entirely abſcinded from the head, that is, in the after-grown hair; but (what is extremely curious) not without pain in the waiſt. — The dreadful conſequences of too early an abſciſſion have made the people ſo fearful, that they will ſeldom allow the clotted lock to be cut off, even when it can be done without danger. Hence it is obſervable, particularly among the common people, that they bear their clotted-locks till they fall off of themſelves, or, if this do not happen, they go to the grave with them. — The national cuſtom of ſhaving the head probably took its riſe from the notion that by ſo doing this diſeaſe would be prevented. But, as we have ſeen, the hair is exactly the ſafeſt conductor ſelected by Nature herſelf, for diſcharging the morbid matter from the maſs of blood; and it is truly amazing that the poliſh nation, after ſo long experience, has not aboliſhed ſo pernicious a practice.

hood or cap which has been worn by one infected with a freſh plica*.

The lower claſs of people in general but rarely apply to a phyſician, commonly, either from poverty or from prejudice, uſing no other remedies than ſuch as are known to them from vulgar experience. Happily the diet of the poliſh boors, on the whole, is the moſt harmleſs, becauſe the moſt ſimple, that can be conceived. Every kind of animal food, if not totally unknown to them, is at leaſt very ſeldom put upon their homely board. Various ſorts of grits, puſſe, and potatoes, are their common nouriſhment. Sour cabbage, ſour turneps, ſour-crout, and other antiſeptics, they eat in incredible quantities. One ſpecies of national food deſerves particular notice, which is called "Barſzez." This is a ſoup, in which barley or grits is boiled with red turneps or cabbage made ſour, and which affords at once a well-taſted and wholſome food. It is above all things to this meſs that the Pole is indebted for being leſs liable to the ſcurvy, from the foul air that he breathes in his narrow ſtrongly heated room, than he otherwiſe would be. And ſtill leſs would he feel it if intemperance in drinking were not ſo much greater among the vulgar than in any other country†.

The

* La Fontaine, paſſim, p. 5—50.

† The account which de la Fontaine gives in theſe lines of the way of living and diet of the Poles, is likewiſe literally adapted

The LITHUANIANS in their bodily ſtructure are between the Poles and the Ruſſians, but are ſhorter than either. Crouching under the weight of ſlavery and want, their phyſical character alſo bears the marks of that degradation to which that once ſo flouriſhing a nation is ſunk. — In ſalubrity, however, they are far better than in outward circumſtances: we find among them fewer diſeaſes than among the Poles. Almoſt all the diſtricts of Lithuania that border on the Baltic are marſhy and wet; yet intermittent fevers are extremely rare; alſo the clotted-locks and venereal taints are leſs common than in what was heretofore called Great and Little Poland. The ratio of the former being here among the lower orders as four to forty, and among the higher as three to ninety or a hunded. Cutaneous eruptions, itch, ſcrofula, hectic complaints, and fevers, are among their moſt current diſorders; no diſeaſe is however ſo common as worms. Inoculation for the ſmall-pox is here ſtill totally unknown.

The deſcription which we have here to make of the LETTES is not much more favourable. The

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adapted to the ruſſian nation; potatoes only excepted, which in Ruſſia are little cultivated and eaten. The "Borſchtſch," as it is called in ruſs, is, properly ſpeaking, peculiar to the Ukraine; but is alſo ſeen in all parts of Ruſſia, and even on the tables of the foreigners in St. Peterſburg, being deemed a wholeſome, well-taſted ſoup.

two

two nations, as in the traits of their hiſtory, bear alſo a ſtrong reſemblance in the features of their face; hard ſervice, want of all ſuperior cultivation, deſtitution of the neceſſaries of life are deeply imprinted on their phyſiognomy in legible characters. The Lettes are very ſhort of ſtature; among the women particularly are many, who, in compariſon with other nations, might paſs for dwarfs. In tolerable circumſtances their bodies ſoon become fleſhy: but, from the accounts of impartial eye-witneſſes, luſty people are ſeldom ſeen. None of the Lettes are equal in ſtrength to the german peaſantry, eſpecially as to what concerns lifting and carrying: nevertheleſs, they endure to an aſtoniſhing degree the extremities of froſt and heat and continued rains, likewiſe hard work with but little ſleep, to all which climate, mode of living, and habit greatly contribute. The hot-bath is likewiſe much in uſe among the Lettes, who, like the Ruſſians, go from the extreme heat of them immediately into the open air; accordingly they are ſeldom heard to complain of defluxions, rheums, catarrhs, and toothachs. In general they are but little acquainted with prevailing ſickneſſes; both plenty and want ſeem equally well to agree with their conſtitutions; even to a very advanced age their teeth are firm and ſound, and generally very white. Spirituous liquors, of which they are extremely fond, ſeem to do no injury to their health. — The women bring

bring forth with much eaſe, commonly without aſſiſtance, and ſtanding. Infirm children are rarely ſeen; they are ſwathed only for a ſhort time, very ſoon crawl upon the ground in all weathers quite naked, and their nurſes themſelves are children of five or ſix years old*.

The nations of the FINNISH race, like moſt of the northern people, are but of a middling height. The characteriſtics of their phyſiognomy are as follows: a flat face with ſunk cheeks, dark-grey eyes, a thin beard, tawny hair, and a ſallow complexion. This deſcription is particularly applicable to the Laplanders; among the Finns the figure is ſomewhat ameliorated by better living and culture, yet the caſt of the viſage is the ſame. The Tſcheremiſſes and the Tſchuvaſhes, in their bodily conformation have more of the tartarian; while the Mordvines approach nearer to the Ruſſians, and the Vogules to the Kalmuks. The laſt, as well as the Oſtiaks, betray their mungrel origin by their dark hair, as the auburn colour of it is characteriſtic of all the genuine finniſh nations

The healthy ſtate of the finniſh people proceeds from their climate and manner of life. They are all of a ſtrong make, and know little of bodily

* Hupel's topographical accounts of Livonia and Eſthonia, tom. ii. p. 121—194.

ailments; but their exceſſive propenſity to inflammatory liquors undermines their phyſical vigour. — With the Laplanders the mortality among the children, from the want of nurſing and care, is very great; and few aged people are ſeen among them. Their moſt common diſeaſes are itch, pulmonary diſorders, putrid fevers, broken bones, (which frequently happen by their climbing the enormous mountains of ſnow and ice,) and diſtempers of the eyes, a conſequence of the dazzling light from the ſnow, together with the ſmoke of their huts. Beſides a number of ſuperſtitious rites and ſacrifices adopted againſt theſe maladies, in inward complaints they principally have recourſe to the warm blood of a freſh-killed rein-deer, and in outward ailments to the cautery of burning fungus. No Laplander will venture to marry till he have firſt killed a rein-deer with his own hand. Sterility among the women is diſgraceful, but rare; they bring their children into the world with great facility, and always on that occaſion enjoy the aſſiſtance of their huſbands. — The Finns are univerſally great eaters, and, in ſpite of their ſtrong paſſion for brandy, not unfrequently attain to a very advanced age. The diſeaſes common among them are dropſy, ſcurvy, the falling ſickneſs, and above all hypochondria. — The other finniſh nations know little or nothing of theſe maladies; it is however very remarkable, that the ſmall-pox were

were known among the Oftiaks previous to the arrival of the Ruſſians *.

The TARTAR ſtem divides into ſo many branches, and the mode of living and government of them, even within the ruſſian empire, are ſo various and diſtinct, that a general delineation of them would be next to impoſſible. Several tartarian tribes, by commixture with other nations, have obliterated their original impreſſion; and by the exchange of their civil conſtitution, their religion, and their manners, they have alſo ſo much disfigured their phyſical character, that, were it not for hiſtorical accounts, we ſhould ſcarcely be able to trace out their origin. This may particularly be affirmed of every branch of the ſiberian Tartars, which, for the moſt part, now bear only the names of their patriarchal relatives, and ſince their ſettlement in that vaſt deſert region are become either true Ruſſians, or a motley breed from all the ſurrounding nations. Of the proper Tartars thoſe of Kazan, Aſtrakhan, and the Krimea have retained their national peculiarity even in externals, and therefore theſe are they with whom we are to ſeek out the characteriſtic marks of their bodily ſtructure.

The genuine unmingled Tartar is of middling ſtature and lean. His head has an oval form, the complexion is freſh and lively; the mouth and

* Deſcription of all the nations of the ruſſian empire, *art.* FINNS.

eyes are ſmall, the latter moſtly black and always expreſſive; the hair dark-brown, the teeth firm and white. The Tartars are in general a very well-made people, and their diſcreet and modeſt behaviour imparts to their ſtender make an agreeable appearance which is not eaſy to be deſcribed. Among the female ſex, though there are but few who can, ſtrictly ſpeaking, be called beauties; yet the open friendly countenance, the blooming hue of health, and the harmonious proportion of all the limbs, give them ſuch charms as we do not every day meet with even among european ladies. — This complete and noble ſhape is however only the inheritance of real Tartars, and loſes itſelf more or leſs in the collateral branches of this people. The Baſchkirs, for example, have much flatter faces, larger ears, ſtronger limbs, and are more fleſhy. With the Kirghiſes the little tartarian eyes are ſtill leſs; and the Teleutes and Yakutes bear in their form traces not to be miſtaken of their commixture with Mongoles and Kalmuks.

The Tartars in general have a very good laſting conſtitution, and their ſimple manner of life, their temperance, and cleanlineſs, ſecure them for the moſt part from all malignant and contagious diſeaſes; the ſmall-pox excepted, which ſeldom rage among them, but when they do, the havoc they commit is the greater. Temperance and cleanlineſs among the Tartars are not merely popular habits.

habits but are a law of their religion. The Koran commands them to wash several times a day, and particularly delivers rules of conduct to the female sex in all situations. It interdicts the use of wine and spirits, and thus saves the faithful from all that legion of mortal ills that follow on intemperance. Not so salutary and dietetic is the command which enjoins abstinence from all manner of food; the Tartars count annually two hundred and five fast-days, on which they are not only prohibited to eat certain meats, but they must totally abstain from all nourishment so long as the sun is visible in the horizon. — Though the Koran allows of polygamy, yet it is rarely customary for people of the poorer or inferior sort to take more than one wife; opulent persons have commonly two, and extremely few go beyond that number.

The farther we advance from the bounds of our european quarter of the globe, the more singular and different are the figures we meet in which the inexhaustible fancy of Nature has shaped the noblest of her creatures. What a transition from the pure harmonious form of the Tartars to the fantastical combinations that prevail in the features and bodily structure of the MONGOLIAN nations!

The Kalmuks are commonly of a middling stature; they are strong built, and rather meagre than fleshy. The face is so flat, that the skull of a Kalmuk can be distinguished from a thousand.

The little narrow eyes, with the pointed corners running to the noſe and the temples, are particularly characteriſtic. The noſe is compreſſed and ſmall, the chin ſhort, the lips thick, the late growing beard very ſcanty, the teeth white and even. The large ears ſtand wide from the head: the complexion copper-coloured or tawny, but the hair black. In conſequence of riding ſo much on horſeback, and from their uſual poſture in ſitting, the Kalmuks are generally bow-kneed at an early period of life. Feeling and taſte are in moſt of them very obtuſe, the other ſenſes generally acute. The female ſex are only diſtinguiſhed from the ſame form by their ſmallneſs and a very delicate ſkin. — Notwithſtanding the duration for which the bodies of the Kalmuks ſeem to be conſtructed, malignant diſeaſes are extremely frequent among them. The ſmall-pox are uſually mortal; putrid fevers and the venereal diſeaſe carry off a great part of their population, and the itch is a peculiar malady, which ſhews itſelf here particularly obſtinate, and is attended by bad conſequences. School-maſters are at the ſame time phyſicians; their principal remedies conſiſt in rhubarb, drugs, the greaſe and brain of animals, moxa of artemiſia, and the like.

The Buræts reſemble the Kalmuks in outward form as far as ſome ſlight variations. We find, for example, more luſty people among the former; their growth of hair is not ſo copious, and many

many of their men never get a beard. The countenance is ſallow; the bodily ſtructure has but little ſolidity or ſtrength: a Ruſſian of equal age and ſize always weighs more than a Buræt, and will beat ſeveral of them in boxing. — Notwithſtanding this feeble conſtitution, the Buræts are, however, a very healthy people, though they ſeldom attain to an advanced age. The ſmall-pox was formerly very deſtructive to them; but ſince an inoculation-hoſpital has been inſtituted at Irkutſk, the mortality occaſioned by it ſeems to be greatly diminiſhed. The Buræts now bring thither not only their children in multitudes, but they very frequently inoculate themſelves. The itch, which is very uſual among them, is a conſequence of their manner of living, food, and clothing. In chronical diſeaſes they uſe the warm-baths on the eaſt-ſide of the lake Baikal. Their phyſicians are the Schamanes, who pretend to heal them more by ſacrifices, incantations, and ſpells than by natural means. — The Mongoles in their phyſical conſtruction approach more to the Kalmuks than to the Buræts.

Of all the ſiberian nations the TUNGUSES are moſt diſtinguiſhed by their greater ſymmetry of form. They are uſually of the middling ſize, well grown, and ſlender; the face is leſs flat than with the Kalmuks; the eyes are little but lively, and the noſe is likewiſe ſmall but well-ſhaped: the beard is ſeldom buſhy, and their hair is black.

Sight and hearing are aſtoniſhingly acute. The female ſex are well-ſhaped and of an agreeable figure. — Of diſeaſes they know but little; properly ſpeaking there are among them none at all. Nevertheleſs they ſeldom live to be old, which is owing partly to the climate, partly to their toilſome and perilous manner of life. The ſmall-pox occaſionally appears among them, and then commits great ravages. Their idolatrous prieſts are at the ſame time their phyſicians.

As we approach nearer to the north pole both the animal and vegetable productions of nature become more and more ſtunted. The ordinary ſtature of the SAMOYEDES ſeldom exceeds four or five feet, and their whole exterior correſponds with their dwarfiſh ſize. They are commonly ſquat built, and have ſhort legs; the head is thick and ſmooth, the noſe flat, the lower part of the viſage prominent, the mouth and ears are large, the lips thin; and the whole animated by a pair of little, black, long-ſlit eyes. To ſo many beauties are ſuperadded a tawny ſkin ſhining with greaſe, and black briſtly hair, which, though ſparingly ſcattered, is carefully plucked up. The female ſex are rather more ſlender, but withal leſs, and on the whole quite as hideous; their maturity comes on very early, but fades ſo much the earlier for propagation. Moſt of the girls are mothers in their eleventh or twelfth year; but their marriages

are

are rarely prolific, and before the thirtieth year they have already done bearing.

The ſame bodily ſtructure and the ſame features of face, ſubject to many variations from hideous to more hideous, are applicable likewiſe to the eaſt-ſiberian tribes. The KAMTSHADALES are equally dwarfiſh, only more broad-ſhouldered; thick head, long flat face, little eyes, thin lips, ſtraggling hair, are here likewiſe the chief lineaments of the human form. The kamtſhadale women, on the other hand, form ſome exception to this delineation; they are praiſed, at leaſt, for a fine white ſkin, very little hands and feet, and withal a better proportion of limbs. — The Kamtſhadales are ſubject to few illneſſes, but cripples are very frequent among them, occaſioned by their dangerous journies and occupations. The moſt current diſorders are the ſcurvy and the venereal diſeaſe; the latter was known among them before the arrival of the Ruſſians. The dazzling reflection of the ſnow, which here lies on the ground during the greater part of the year, is the cauſe of frequent inflammation of the eyes. The ſmall-pox is ſo malignant among this people, from their living chiefly on fiſh and other aliment that eaſily turn to putrefaction, that, like the plague, it uſually carries off a whole generation when once it begins to be rife. Inoculation, however, has been long in practice among them; every Kamtſhadale performs this operation on himſelf, by means

means of a fiſh-bone dipped in the variolous pus. — Both men and women are alike of a warm temperament; the acrid juices engendered in theſe ichthyophagi by food, climate, and mode of life, give them an incredible propenſity to voluptuouſneſs. The women bear eaſily and are very fruitful.

The form of the TSCHUKTSCHES and KORYÆKES differs ſo much from that of the Kamtſhadales, that theſe people muſt neceſſarily be of a different origin. The former are principally diſtinguiſhed by a ſmall head and a round meagre face. — The KURILS incline towards the Japaneſe, and are much better ſhaped; a great part of theſe iſlanders have ſuch a quantity of hair over their whole body, that they are often for that reaſon called the hairy Kurils. On the contrary, with the ALEUTANS, even the beard is very ſcanty, and the ſkin completely white; and their figure on the whole is rather agreeable *.

* Deſcription of all the nations that compoſe the ruſſian empire. — Travels of the academicians, paſſim. — Storch's hiſtoriſch-ſtatiſtiſches gemælde des ruſſiſchen reichs, &c. tom. i.

VIEW

VIEW

OF THE

RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

BOOK IV.

OF THE SEVERAL RANKS OR CLASSES OF THE SUBJECTS.

The notion commonly prevalent, that formerly no more than two claſſes of people were known in Ruſſia, the nobles and their vaſſals, is ill-founded. There has always been a ſort of middle claſs, and in proceſs of time this was ſplit as it were into ſeveral others. From the remoteſt periods there have always been cities; for example, Novgorod and Pſcove, which for a long ſeries of time were even conſidered as republics: then Kief, Vladimir, together with others; and afterwards Moſco. Beſides, when the peaſantry firſt fell into vaſſalage, there were claſſes that belonged neither to them nor to the nobility; for, not to mention the clergy, who

who have ever enjoyed a great conſideration, there were the writers, the odnodvortzi *, the kozaks, and ſeveral others.

In moſt of the ſtates of Europe the ſubjects are uſually divided into three claſſes. The ſame number is mentioned in Ruſſia by the late empreſs in her inſtructions to the commiſſion for making a code of laws: and this with the greateſt propriety; as ſhe had legiſlation chiefly in view, and expreſsly included the collateral ranks. She ſpeaks therefore only of the nobility; of the middle claſs, in which the clergy is reckoned; and of the lower

* The word odnodvortzi is compounded of *odno*, one, and *dvor*, a houſe, and therefore ſignifies owners of one habitation only; they are a certain ſet of ruſſian peaſants who were originally nobles, but being reduced to poverty by various circumſtances, were obliged to till with their own hands what little ground they had remaining, for a maintenance. In proceſs of time, people of different denominations, ſuch chiefly as filled inferior offices under government, came and ſettled among them; and in the reign of tzar Peter the great, when every nobleman was obliged to enliſt himſelf in the military, ſeveral of them, even thoſe of conſiderable property, choſe this condition of life, preferring rather to pay taxes to government along with theſe peaſants, than go into the ſervice. Theſe peaſants have their own landed property, which they can diſpoſe of only to thoſe of their own condition. They pay all taxes impoſed by government; have free liberty to traffic; to exerciſe any trade, art, or handicraft; and to employ themſelves in every purſuit agreeable to their own diſpoſitions and the laws of the country: but they cannot change their condition, nor remove from one diſtrict and ſettle in another, without having firſt obtained permiſſion from the government.

claſs.

claſs. We may then without ſcruple adhere to this diviſion; for, by adopting any other we ſhall either run into fanciful conjectures, or be obliged to make arbitrary diſtinctions without ſignification, and almoſt without end.

One author divides the ruſſian ſubjects into five ſeveral ranks or claſſes *; and for ſuch a diviſion arguments may be brought: only he ſhould not have ſet the free peaſants in the ſame claſs with the vaſſal-boors, it being well known that they are very different in regard to their rights. Neither is it apparent why he aſſigns a particular claſs to the foreign ſettlers, ſince they belong either as burghers and manufacturers to the middle, or as huſbandmen to the lower claſs. I am therefore obliged to depart a little from the diviſion which he has adopted as well as from that of ſeveral others.

Not to loſe our time then in idle diviſions by tribes, it will I think be better to keep principally in view thoſe three leading claſſes before-mentioned, which ſeem to admit of a farther diviſion in regard to rights and conſtitutions, whether founded on laws and privileges or on antient cuſtom and preſcriptive uſage. Accordingly we may divide the ſubject into the following five general

* Pargold's diſſertation de diverſis imperii Roſſici ordinibus eorumque juribus, &c. Halæ 1786. — Mr. Coxe enumerates only four claſſes; and this diviſion too may in ſome reſpects be defended.

claſſes,

claſſes *, by which however it will not be nearly exhauſted.

SECTION I.

Nobility.

In Ruſſia at preſent there is properly but one kind of nobility. It is the practice in ſome other countries, as it was formerly in this, to make a diſtinction between the higher and lower orders of nobility, but this diſtinction is now entirely unknown †; though concerning the peculiar characteriſtics of each of theſe two diviſions authors are not agreed ‡.

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* Whoever chooſes may admit more, by reducing, for inſtance, the khans of the uncivilized nations, the german coloniſts, &c. into diſtinct claſſes, and then we ſhall have upwards of twenty of them.

† Mr. Coxe mentions the higher and lower nobility, but from what authorities it does not appear.

‡ As the inquiry concerning what perſons or families compoſed the high nobility does not properly fall in with the ſubject now in hand, I ſhall only ſay a few words on it. Some appear to make it conſiſt of princes ſprung from the reigning grand-princely houſes. Others ſpeak principally of the antient boyars: but thence immediately ariſes the queſtion, what they were, whence deſcended, and how they maintained their dignity; and then, whether this dignity was conferred by the ſovereign, whether it attached to birth, or whether it grew out of the conſequence they brought into the country with them.

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It would likewiſe be very difficult to aſcertain preciſely what privileges were arrogated by the higher nobility of Ruſſia in preference to the lower *. If we

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If we conſider them as the privy counſellors of the ſovereign, then their precedence ariſes merely from their office, or they muſt have already been ſo by birth. But it has been likewiſe affirmed, that the boyars, and in general the moſt conſiderable of the old ruſſian nobility, came from abroad, were ſprung from foreign anceſtors, and brought their nobility into the empire with them. This is a matter that muſt be left to the curious reſearches of hiſtorians and antiquaries. — But even among what are called the inferior nobility, a diſtinction appeared ſo early as that period: for noblemen that were elevated to that honour by the tzar had precedence over thoſe whom the patriarch, or an archbiſhop, or a boyar had raiſed to a ſort of nobleſſe. Perhaps there was a difference among the boyars; at leaſt many of them were merely elected to that honour.

* M. Purgold is of opinion that the Ruſſians had originally a high and inferior nobility, with the ſame rights as in the reſt of Europe. This I ſhall not venture to affirm. It is true, the boyars made free-men, by diſtributing portions of land among their vaſſals, and thus raiſed them to a ſort of nobleſſe: but I know not whether this was done by right, or by an arrogated claim, with the tacit approbation of the ſovereign. — On one hand the old families carried their pretended rights much farther than the high nobility in Germany, eſpecially in regard to the military ſervice; as a nobleman, whoſe forefathers had acquired high degrees of honour, would not ſerve under ſuch as had not ſo long a pedigree to ſhew: whereas the german princes, of antient princely families, fought without ſcruple under a general of the inferior, or even of quite new nobility. On account of the great confuſions this occaſioned in the ſervice, the tzar Feodor

we find them in poſſeſſion of no hereditary inherent and eſſential prerogatives, of none but what they acquired from the office of boyars, or that they conſiſted merely in pretenſions; in that caſe the antient diſtinction between the higher and lower nobility will appear to be very inſignificant or altogether doubtful.

The ruſſian nobility, eſpecially in Great Ruſſia, have always enjoyed certain peculiar rights and privileges; but they were for the moſt part only derived from long uſage, not ſanctioned by any written law or even compact *. Theſe privileges are: 1. that they can excluſively poſſeſs landed eſtates; of which we ſhall ſpeak more particularly hereafter. 2. They can not only alienate or ſell their eſtates, but they can uſe them at pleaſure wherever the monopolies of the crown form no limitations. Thus, a nobleman can ſet up a diſtillery; but only for his own uſes, or for ſale to the crown, and not for the public houſes †. 3. If a nobleman

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Feodor Alexéyevitch cauſed the ſéppeaniye knigi, (the books of pedigrees,) whence the nobility drew their ſingular pretenſions, to be deſtroyed. — On the other hand, the ruſſian high nobility had fewer prerogatives than the german, eſpecially in regard to territorial juriſdiction and authority.

* I ſay for the moſt part, becauſe ſuch a privilege has really a written law in its favour in the Uloſhenie.

† In this matter ſome provinces have greater privileges than others, being allowed to diſtil not only for private uſe, but alſo for

nobleman be found guilty of any high crime, he may be ſentenced to the forfeiture of his eſtate, his life, and his honour, conſequently his nobility; but he can never be made a vaſſal. 4. They can arbitrarily impoſe taxes and ſervices on their vaſſals, and may inflict on them corporal puniſhment, ſhort of putting them to death; a written law in the Uloſhenie (the old law of the land) protects them in this matter*, whereby the vaſſal is for-

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for the public houſes, without being ſubject to any tax upon it. Of this ſort are the Don kozaks, the land-owners in Little Ruſſia, the proprietors of eſtates in Livonia and Eſthonia, &c. — On the other hand, the ruſſian nobility, and generally in other provinces every proprietor of land, has the high and low chace on his own grounds, as well as the right to ſet up mills at pleaſure, without paying any tribute for it.

* It might almoſt be affirmed, that in this the nobility have a greater authority than the crown ever exerciſed over any one of its ſubjects. With what lenity does that proceed in pardoning and puniſhing! with what accuracy and caution is the caſe inveſtigated! — which it muſt be confeſſed but ſeldom happens in the ordinary domeſtic correction, where paſſion frequently interferes. Even on the occaſional introduction of new impoſts, the crown has always ſhewn great indulgence; and when, for example, a greater obrok is impoſed on its own people, it is declared to be done only in order to leſſen the jealouſy between the boors belonging to the crown and thoſe of the nobility. However, the ruſſian nobles are not apt to abuſe the authority they have over the boors, but, for ſeveral reaſons, moſtly behave with humanity towards them. Lords that exceed all bounds in ſeverity of treatment have, in order to reſcue the boors, been declared impotent of mind, which made it neceſſary to put them under guardianſhip.

bidden under penalty to bear witneſs or bring any complaint againſt his lord. 5. The nobleman is properly not reſponſible for his vaſſals; when the crown has any requiſition to make, the officer applies to the village*, if the former do not of his own accord take upon him the delivery. 6. His vaſſals, indeed, bear the ordinary public † burdens, namely, the ſoul-tax, or capitation ‡, the ſupply of recruits §, and the furniſhing of quarters ‖; to which may be added, on urgent occaſions, the providing of horſes, though commonly for pay: but to new and unuſual public ſervices or exac-

* In Livonia and Eſthonia, on the contrary, the nobleman muſt anſwer and pay for his boors; otherwiſe, not his village, but he incurs an execution. Conſequently they there know nothing of crown-arrears, ſo common in Ruſſia, where they are ſometimes remitted by an act of grace.

† Even the crown-boors are liable to them in Great Ruſſia.

‡ Ever ſince its firſt introduction it has remained the ſame, without increaſe or alteration. Thus, the crown cannot require the noble-boors to work it out at the mines, though it can compel its own boors to do ſo, as every nobleman may his, whenever he thinks fit.

§ The boors muſt, indeed, give up their ſons as recruits, or find ſubſtitutes for money; but the recruiting likewiſe affects the property of the nobleman, who loſes ſome of his vaſſals by it.

‖ The boor muſt take thoſe quartered upon him into his cottage, which likewiſe the officer muſt put up with. But of late many of the crown-villages have begun to erect particular quarters for the officers, and ſpacious ſtables for the cavalry, at their own expence, that they may live the more quietly in their humble habitations.

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tions from the crown without pay, ſuch as making or repairing roads and forts, or guarding and conducting priſoners, &c. * they are not † obliged, except, if I am not miſtaken, by a law of Peter the great, on preſſing emergencies. 7. A nobleman cannot be compelled (at leaſt it has never happened) to build a barrack or a magazine for the crown, or to raiſe recruits againſt his will ‡. 8. His perſon and his landed property are exempt from

* For ſuch matters the crown hires the neceſſary people. It has at times procured voluntary boors for a ſhort time, and ſet them as guards over priſoners, with ſuch arms as are uſed by the kozaks. Some provinces, for example Livonia and Eſthonia, form an exception; for there the noble-boor muſt take care of the repairs of the highways gratis, put up poſts and rails where neceſſary, and ſometimes conduct priſoners, &c.

† Whether, however, they may not be compelled to it, I cannot venture to decide.

‡ When the crown wants any thing, voluntary contracts are made for it; and the neceſſary ſtore-houſes muſt be built at its expence. — It is, however, quite otherwiſe in ſome parts of Livonia and Eſthonia; for there the nobleman muſt build and maintain particular quarter-houſes or barracks, or find a proper lodging in his own yard for the officers ſent him: he muſt alſo provide magazines, keep receivers and deliverers there, and be anſwerable for all damages; muſt ſupply the poſt-ſtations with buildings and forage; muſt give up certain products at a very moderate price whenever the crown requires it, &c. On the other hand, both theſe dukedoms are exempt from the levy of recruits.

taxation *. — The privileges of the nobility have of late, by a manifeſto of the year 1785, been confirmed and enlarged. They can now have their own marſhals; hold aſſemblies, which cannot be moleſted by any arreſt; they may ſet up manufactories and open mines on their own ground, without paying any tribute to the crown for them.

The nobility, likewiſe, were always bound to certain duties. One of the moſt important was to ſerve the government with inviolable fidelity, which is implied in the very origin of nobility. In Ruſſia this had, for a long time, the appearance of coercion. At firſt, as in the old germanic feudal ſyſtem, every nobleman was obliged to appear in the field with his ſubjects at his own expence. This cuſtom ceaſed on the eſtabliſhment of a ſtanding army, and to the ſupport of which the capitation-tax was impoſed on the boor: nevertheleſs, the nobleman is bound, as heretofore, to ſerve the empire in his own perſon; nor can he, without expreſs permiſſion, enter into any foreign ſervice. But the emperor Peter I. was deſirous that his nobility ſhould travel, improve

* He can uſe his lands, foreſts, &c. as he pleaſes, for which he pays no public impoſt. Only when he ſells his eſtate, to which alſo the vaſſals are reckoned, either he or the purchaſer muſt pay a certain percentage upon it. This, as well as the beforementioned levy of recruits, may be conſidered as a ſort of taxation.

their

their manners, and accept of foreign *ſervice, Peter III. declared, in a manifeſto of the 18th of February 1762, that they were at liberty to enter into the ſervice of any country they choſe, or to live on their eſtates without ſerving at all †. The late empreſs wiſhed to encourage thoſe few who prefer honour to their private convenience, to manifeſt their proper object by entering into military or civil employment. — From her they have now received a written prerogative in the above-mentioned manifeſto of 1785. In virtue of which the nobles of every government are inrolled in the book of nobility in ſix claſſes or diviſions; nevertheleſs, all the ſix form but one ſingle corps: ſo that the liſt belonging to each government is a ſupplement to the genealogical book of the collective nobility of the whole empire; wherein no

* At leaſt he recommended it to them in very expreſs terms, on occaſion of the ſplendid and elegant appearance of count Beſtuchef-Riumin, afterwards chancellor, at the court of St. Peterſburg, on his arriving from a foreign embaſſy.

† It has been imagined by ſome that the nobles were not free till then; and that they were before no better than a parcel of ſlaves or vaſſals. — Indeed even the greateſt boyar, in his letters and ſtatements to the monarch, always ſubſcribed himſelf his ſlave; but this was the ſtyle of the times, and ſignified nothing more than what "your moſt devoted humble ſervant" does at preſent. — As ſubjects in other countries are bound to the ſervice of their country; and, even in our own, on the iſſuing of a proclamation, every man muſt hurry home, ſo it was with the ruſſian nobility, though ſomewhat more general and compulſory.

regard is paid to birth, origin, rank, religion, or language.

The ſix claſſes or diviſions are according to the order preſcribed in the manifeſto: 1. The real nobility, who can ſhew their diploma, arms, and ſeal, or ſufficient teſtimony that they have been of the real nobility one hundred years. 2. The military nobility, conſiſting of officers of birth not noble, but by their military ſervice, in conformity to the ukaſe of Peter I. bearing date Jan. 16, 1721, are ennobled, with their children and poſterity *. They have no need of a diploma: their commiſſion as officers ſupplies its place. 3. The eight-claſs nobility, or perſons belonging to the firſt eight degrees of rank †: they are eſteemed equal to the moſt antient nobility. 4. Foreigners, deſcending from families of foreign countries. 5. The families honoured with titles, princes, counts, and barons. 6. The antient noble races, who can prove the antiquity of their nobility, although their noble origin be covered with obſcurity.

* The name of ſuch as have only perſonal nobility does not appear in the book of pedigrees.

† From the ſtaff-officer upwards; alſo ſuch as have the ſame rank in the court and civil ſervice, e.g. court-counſellors, counſellors of ſtate, have the brigadier's rank; actual counſellors of ſtate have the rank of major-general, and are addreſſed by the ſtyle of excellence.

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In regard to the military and eight-claſs nobility, it ſhould farther be obſerved, that there are mercantile people who have received the characters of ſtaff and ſuperior officers. In relation to them a ukaſe was iſſued by her majeſty, dated the 13th of Feb. 1790, that thoſe who, according to the ukaſe of Nov. 18, 1766, have ſuch characters might be contractors and farmers to the crown, but were not permitted to purchaſe eſtates, nor be united with the nobility who are inrolled in the tables of rank. But merchants, who have received their character according to the regulation provided for the military and civil ſervices, may not undertake any contracts or farmings, but are admitted to all the rights and privileges which are granted to deſerving perſons by the ukaſe of Peter I. and by that of her late majeſty Catharine II. of April 21, 1785.

Formerly the ruſſian nobility conſiſted only of princes*, and the ordinary nobleſſe; and the ſovereign granted no other than theſe two dignities: but ſince the commencement of the eighteenth century counts and barons have been added, who have received their dignities either from the ruſſian monarch or the emperor of Germany. — The nobility of the empire is very numerous †, and is

* Knæſes.

† Eſpecially about Moſco: the more wealthy reſide in that city; and a certain pride is very obſervable in them there, which however does not diſplay itſelf much in their intercourſe

is increaſing daily not only by deſcent, but alſo by ſervice, rank, title, alien pedigree, and foreign diploma*.

The nobility conſiſts at preſent of ſeveral claſſes or orders, ſuch as: 1. PRINCES, whoſe number is extremely large. Some are ſprung from the blood of reigning princes, as the families of Dolgoruki, Vazemſkoi, Cherkaſkoi, Chilkof, &c. Others deſcend from Poles, as Golitzin; and others have been raiſed to the princely rank. Several are of tartarian pedigree. Many have been created princes in order to gain them over, as being the principal perſons in a place beſieged; even myrzas have received this dignity on allowing themſelves to be baptized. — Without military rank obtained by ſervice, they bear indeed the title of princes, but they have no pre-eminence attached to their birth, nor any precedence over the other nobility that are in the ſervice. Only their ſons that have merit are preferred before

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with others, but ariſes merely from a conſciouſneſs of their own importance, and is only diſcernible in their carriage and deportment.

* In Livonia merchants and others ſometimes endeavour to get a patent of nobility from abroad (as in Peterſburg it can only be obtained by ſervice) to qualify themſelves for purchaſing an eſtate, or to exempt them from perſonal taxes, or that their children who are in the army or navy may be the ſooner advanced. By this means a great deal of money goes out of the country.

others.

others. The daughter of a prince, without injury to her honour, marries a ſimple nobleman. No ruſſian prince poſſeſſes or derives his name or title from a principality; though many of them are owners of eſtates far more extenſive than the territory of ſome ſovereign princes in Germany.

The princes of the german empire, as well by inheritance as creation, form a particular and pre-eminent claſs of princes: they receive the title of Highneſs, and their children are ſtyled princes and princeſſes *.

Among the princes we may not improperly reckon the khans, &c. who govern the tribes of the ſteppes, under the ruſſian ſovereignty, though they are not ſtyled princes. So alſo the ataman of the kozaks of the Don, for the time being, may well be admitted under this head.

2. COUNTS are much fewer in number than princes, to whom they are properly not inferior in dignity, rank, and authority. They have their title either from the ruſſian ſovereign or from the german court, and would not willingly exchange it for that of prince. They poſſeſs no territorial county, and the german title, Graf, is adopted into the ruſſian language.

3. BARONS, or freyherrn, free-lords; the liber homo, perhaps, of the antient charters and ſtatutes

* The children of common ruſſian princes, or even of khans, do not receive this title: the former are called princes and princeſſes.

of

of England. Ruſſia has but few barons; for a long time the family of Stroganof was the only one of that empire that was honoured with this title. The late empreſs raiſed ſeveral perſons to it; among whom we have ſeen three of our own countrymen, baron Dimſdale with his ſon baron Nathanael Dimſdale, and baron Sutherland late banker to her majeſty.

4. SIMPLE NOBLEMEN, whoſe number is exceedingly great. Among them are very rich families, poſſeſſing eſtates in land of greater ſurface than many a dukedom; but alſo numbers that are poor, who have neither a peaſant nor a foot of land belonging to them. A general officer, ſtill alive, being on a journey in Siberia, came to a village which was almoſt entirely inhabited by noblemen; who, having no boors, carried on their huſbandry with their own hand-labour, as is the common practice with ſome of the petty nobleſſe of Poland.

5. DIETI-BOYARSKIE, or boyars'-children, and the patriarchal, as alſo the epiſcopal nobles; of whom ſome poſſeſs real nobility, while others are enregiſtered in the capitation. The antient reſpectable boyars, who poſſeſſed an extenſive property in land, erected a ſort of dominion around them, in conformity with their feudal notions, and raiſed ſome of their vaſſals to diſtinction over the reſt, under the name of Dieti-boyarſkie, i. e. boyars'-children, who were to ſerve the ſtate.

Their

Their example was ſoon followed by the ſuperior clergy who had large poſſeſſions; eſpecially the patriarch, who took upon him, like the ſovereign, to elevate perſons under his protection to the rank of nobility, and to grant them eſtates. The tzars afterwards conferred real nobility on ſome of them who had ſhewn themſelves worthy of it by abilities and merit. — The governors of provinces likewiſe formerly appointed ſeveral kozaks that were ſtationed in towns to the dignity of boyar-children and nobleſſe; as a reward for their ſervices either in the military or civil department: yet they could not confer on them real nobility, nor have they ever been held in equal conſideration with that which follows it. — In the eighteenth century, when the capitation-tax and the delivery of recruits were introduced, ſuch of the boyar-children, and epiſcopal or patriarchal nobleſſe, as had vaſſals, were admitted into the number of real nobles: others remained ſubject to perſonal ſervices; or, if they had entered into guilds and corporation companies, they were regiſtered to the capitation. — Their rank and their right to poſſeſs eſtates are, however, held by ſome to be very problematical.

It being a maxim with the ruſſian ſovereigns not more expreſsly to favour the antient than the new nobility, and princes not more viſibly than the other nobles; inſomuch, that even, according to the regulation for equipages publiſhed a few years

years ago, the nobleman who has not ſerved, muſt drive an inferior equipage in towns, that is, with only one horſe, to the merchant, who may be drawn in his coach with two or four horſes at his diſcretion: it follows, that every one muſt ſtrive to raiſe himſelf by good behaviour and ſervices performed to the ſtate, if he will not ſink into oblivion, and live in his village without authority or conſequence. For birth here gives but little claim to preference and conſideration; both are regulated by the degree of rank acquired by ſervice. Birth merely facilitates the way to honour. Accordingly there is not one place of rank which the new noble or the man of not-noble birth may not fill. No queſtion is ever put concerning anceſtry; and the officer's wife, who may be the daughter of a burgher, appears upon an equal footing with the moſt antient princeſs at the imperial court, where they both receive the reſpect attached to the rank of their huſband.

Though it ſhould appear from the charter granted by her late majeſty in 1785, as well as from ſeveral antient laws, that the right of poſſeſſing landed eſtates is granted only to the nobility; yet it would be wrong to conclude thence, that the nobleman only and excluſively may poſſeſs property in land throughout the whole empire; or that by thoſe ukaſes the rights of other ranks and claſſes were aboliſhed. It is not to be denied, that on a ſlight view, thoſe ukaſes ſeem to

to appropriate ſolely to the nobility the right of being land-owners; nay, there is an ukaſe by which merchants, who, though of the character of ſtaff and upper officers, but have not the entire noble pre-eminence, were prohibited the purchaſe of eſtates: conſequently, in the preſent caſe, the nobility were not contraſted with the vaſſals or hereditary boors, but with the other ranks. It is no leſs undeniable, that not only private perſons and particular ranks*, but alſo whole tribes belonging in no reſpect to the nobility, poſſeſs a real landed property, eſtates, nay entire diſtricts and provinces: we ſee a proof of this in the odnodvortzi and the kozaks of Little Ruſſia, each of whom has his little heritable eſtate; ſo likewiſe the Don kozaks, who are real proprietors of the whole of their extenſive country, in which they have their lands and cow-yards; thus alſo the Tartars, Baſchkirs, and Vogules, who ſell or let out large tracts of land or foreſts of their own hereditary poſſeſſions, to the proprietors of mines. Ruſſian merchants too, ſince the reign of Peter I. poſſeſs property in land and boors: alſo in Livonia and Eſthonia real landed eſtates have belonged from time immemorial to particular towns and bodies corporate; and the empreſs Catharine II. latterly made a free-

* Monaſteries and churches have ſtill in Ruſſia many parcels of land belonging to them; but ſeveral livonian and eſthonian paſtorates are real eſtates provided with vaſſals.

gift

gift of the eſtate of Vieratz in perpetuity to the incorporated burghers of the kreisſtadt Fellin. That even ſimple boors may buy a village with all the people belonging to it, will hereafter be ſhewn from ukaſes when we come to ſpeak of the peaſantry. On the whole then it appears, that in the expreſſion of the ukaſes above-mentioned, there is a manifeſt obſcurity which may eaſily lead into miſtakes *. In Livonia the laws reſtricting the poſſeſſion of land have given riſe to the practice of procuring patents of nobility from Vienna, or at leaſt titles that confer the rank of nobles, by perſons of unnoble birth when they wiſh to purchaſe eſtates.

The noble eſtates in Ruſſia were formerly of two entirely different ſpecies: the one termed land-eſtates, the other hereditary eſtates; for Peter I. in 1714 introduced a ſort of majority, or indiviſibility, ſo that the poſſeſſor of an eſtate could make it over to which of his children he pleaſed. This diverſity was the cauſe of many difficulties in hereditary ſucceſſion. By an ukaſe bearing date the 17th of March 1731, the empreſs Anna entirely repealed it; aboliſhed the land-eſtates, and declared all to be hereditary to which a complete right of property and free diſpoſal were attached. From that time theſe here-

* Thoſe laws ſeem to relate principally to Great Ruſſia; and there only to ſuch eſtates to which vaſſals belong, though with ſome limitation.

ditary

ditary eſtates have been inherited and ſold as ſuch. Only in Livonia and Eſthonia there were ſtill fiefs, whoſe legitimacy was liable to ſome doubt, and on an examination being ordered it cauſed cruel apprehenſions to their owners. But the late empreſs quieted their fears, to the happineſs of theſe two dukedoms, by an ukaſe of May 3, 1783, whereby all fiefs are aboliſhed, and thoſe eſtates are converted into real hereditary property with liberty of alienation.

Of the ruſſian eſtates it is farther to be remarked: 1. That they are vulgarly called villages, the value or greatneſs of which is eſtimated by the ſouls, i. e. the male heads of peaſantry, as in general every proprietary reckons his riches according to ſouls. When a proprietary wants to borrow money of the lombard, it will advance him forty rubles for every ſoul comprehended in the mortgage: the females are never taken into the account. 2. In heritages the eſtate is divided among all the children of both ſexes; hence it is that at times a village belongs to ſeveral lords, each of whom poſſeſſes a certain number of ſouls upon it, and if he will he may go and live upon it, conduct his own huſbandry, or leave the care of it to his boors; becauſe all the ground and ſoil are his property. On failure of a direct heir, ſometimes a family privilege comes in force; if, for inſtance, the mother die, ſhe leaves the eſtate brought by her to her children; but, on their

dying without heirs, it falls not to the father, but back to the maternal family.

Concerning the antient boyars, and their proper origin, nothing ſatisfactory has hitherto been publiſhed. During the tartarian and mongolian ſovereignty no trace of them is found*; even during the reign of tzar Ivan Vaſſillievitch I. no ſuch title appears, though it ſeems to have ariſen at that time or ſhortly after. For, under the tzar Ivan Vaſſillievitch II. the boyars had already endeavoured to collect a conſiderable force about them; but were much over-awed by that monarch. In the ſucceeding period, however, when the patriarch, and, under his protection, the ſuperior clergy, raiſed great pretenſions, which, in the confuſions that ſoon after ſprang up, and from the indulgence or ſlothfulneſs of ſome tzars, were

* In a german compilation the boyars are mentioned under the mongolian ſupremacy, and even earlier: but, as the author does not quote the authorities whence he has his accounts, nothing can be decided from what he advances in favour of the antiquity of the boyars. It is likely he may have confounded expreſſions: for boyar often indicates the nobility in general: and we ſometimes hear the nobility in Moldavia and Valakhia called by the title of boyars. Even in the ruſſian language boyarin ſignifies a gentleman, a perſon of diſtinction, a maſter of a family; and the ruſſian peaſant uſually ſtyles his nobleman, even though he has neither rank nor eſtate, boyarin, or contractedly barin; and his ſpouſe, boyarina. The taſk-ſervice which the boors perform to their lord is therefore called, boyarſchtſchina.

brought

brought to effect, the boyars took advantage of this favourable opportunity to extend their power alſo. It is probable likewiſe that perſons of reſpectable birth, from other countries*, who filled high ſtations in Ruſſia; and on that account, no leſs than from the privileges they brought with them, enjoyed great authority, might give occaſion to all boyars, i. e. the ſuperior officers, to aſſume a conſequence which they ſtrove occaſionally to enlarge.

In regard to titles derived from rank, the Ruſſians in their addreſſes and letters employ either the rank-title, as, Major, with goſpodin, or Mr. prefixed, as the French ſay, Monſieur le Majeur; or only the baptiſmal name with the addition of the father's baptiſmal name, and the termination vitch, as, Ivan Petrovitch, John the ſon of

* That there are foreign families among the ruſſian nobility is too well known to need any proof. The family of Beſtuchef is of engliſh origin; the name of the founder of it was Beſt, but as that word in the ruſſian ſignifies beaſt, and in order to give it a national termination, the two laſt ſyllables were added; to which they afterwards got the ſurname Riumin, to denote their foreign deſcent. The firſt count Bruce was a Scotchman, no longer ago than the reign of Peter the Great, who engaged him in his ſervice. The family of Kar is alſo from North-Britain. That of Panin is originally Genoeſe. Korſakof came from Corſica, and therefore bears the ſurname Rimſki. The Fominſins are Thomſons, the name being tranſlated: Foma, Thomas; and ſyn, a ſon. A hundred more examples of a like nature might be given.

Peter; of the family appellative, except in particular caſes, no mention is made. In like manner the late empreſs, in her letters, addreſſed men of conſequence, either by their office; as, in french it would be (for it is not to be put into engliſh): Monſieur le general gouverneur de Riga et de Reval! or merely in their own and their father's baptiſmal name; the latter eſpecially when ſhe wrote to Ruſſians; in writs to inferior officers the addreſs is ſimply: To our college-aſſeſſor N. or the like. Below the imperial name is commonly a counterſignature of one of the cabinet-miniſters. — A Ruſſian, in the ordinary courſe of his correſpondence uſes only his chriſtian and family names, as Ivan Poſkatſhin; but, when he writes to the empreſs or preſents a petition, he alſo gives his father's baptiſmal name, though not with the termination *vitch;* but, as a mark of his ſubmiſſion and humility, with the termination *of*, adding the word *ſyn*, i. e. ſon, as, Ivan Petrof ſyn Poſkatſhin.

SECTION II

The Clergy.

THOUGH the clergy are frequently comprehended in the middle order, yet without impropriety we may here aſſign them, as in ſeveral other kingdoms,

doms, a diſtinct claſs, being numerous and reſpectable, and having certain peculiar privileges of its own; beſides, as it is ſometimes particularly mentioned in manifeſtos *, and in ſeveral places is diſtinct from other claſſes †. The clergy are divided into ſuperior and inferior, into monaſtic and ſecular.

The clergy enjoy peculiar rights and privileges: they not only are held in greater reſpect, which extends alſo to the inferior clergy ‡, but they cannot ſuffer corporal puniſhment without being previouſly defecrated; they are moreover exempt from taxes, even the ſecular prieſt pays no head-money for his ſons §; though when he has ſeveral he muſt deliver his proportion as recruits; who, however, as they can read and write, ſoon puſh

* Thus, for example, the empreſs Elizabeth, in her firſt manifeſto after coming to the crown, ſays, that all her faithful ſubjects of the ſpiritual and temporal orders had unanimouſly invited her to aſcend the throne of her fathers.

† In Livonia, where a liſt of ſouls muſt be delivered in every half-year, the clergy, according to orders iſſued for that purpoſe, take the ſecond place, as a particular body; they are always inſerted between the nobles and the burghers.

‡ Among the vulgar it extends even to thoſe whoſe behaviour and office do not exactly tally.

§ Even the ſexton does not pay it; only with the boors belonging to churches and monaſteries, it is the ſame as with noble-villages.

themſelves forwards, and at length come to be officers *, if they deſerve it by their conduct. The 31 eparchies are the following:

1. Novgorod and St. Peterſburg.
2. Pſcove and Riga.
3. Tver and Kaſhin †.
4. Moſco and Kaluga ‡.
5. Kief and Galitch.
6. Mohilef, Mſtiſlavl, and Orſhanſk.
7. Smolenſk and Dorogobuſh.
8. Kazan and Sviyaſhſk.
9. Aſtrakhan and Stavropol.
10. Tobolſk and Siberia.
11. Roſtof and Yaroſlaf.
12. Riázan and Shatzk.
13. Ekatarinoſlaf and Kherſon-Taurida.
14. Tſchernigof and Neſhin.
15. Novgorodſeverſki and Glukhof
16. Niſhgorod and Alatyr.
17. Bielgorod and Kurſk.
18. Suſdal and Vladimir.

*. For the ſame reaſon the preachers in Livonia and Eſthonia (who by their privileges may poſſeſs noble eſtates) frequently put their ſons into the land or ſea ſervice, though they are not ſubject to the recruit-levies.

† Theſe three firſt mentioned prelates are now members of the holy directing ſynod at St. Peterſburg.

‡ This prelate is member of the ſynod, though only for the department of Moſco.

19. Kolomna

19. Kolomna and Tula.
20. Vologda and Uſtiug.
21. Viatka and Great Permia.
22. Archangel and Olonetz.
23. Voronetſh.
24. Irkutſk and Nertſhinſk.
25. Koſtroma and Galitch.
26. Tambof and Penſa.
27. Orel and Sieſik.

The following eparchies have vicars:

28. Starayaruſſa. The prelate is vicar in the novgorodian eparchy.
29. Dmitrof. The prelate is vicar in the moſcovite eparchy.
30. Pereyaſlavl and Boriſpolſk. The prelate is coadjutor of Kief.
31. Feodoſia and Mariyepolſk. The prelate is vicar in the ekatarinoſlaf eparchy.

Krutitzki is not named among the reſt, becauſe its biſhop is exempted from the adminiſtration of the eparchy, and reſides in a monaſtery as archimandrit.

In the empire are uſually reckoned 18,350 pariſh-churches and cathedrals of the orthodox greek religion. In the year 1755, they were numbered at only 18,070. But to theſe muſt be added: 1. a multitude of conventual and other ſmall churches which have no peculiar prieſt, but

are conſidered as filiales or chapels: their number extends into thouſands: 2. the numerous churches of other confeſſions, either in the provinces on the borders of the Baltic, or in White Ruſſia, or laſtly ſuch as ſtand alone in ruſſian towns.

The number of the ruſſian clergy is computed at 67,900 perſons, without including their families; to which ſhould be added thoſe of other confeſſions and religions. Some authors aſſert, that in the whole empire are four hundred and eighty monaſteries and ſeventy-four nunneries, among which the ſmaller are not reckoned; the former containing 7300 monks, and the latter 5300 nuns. The laſt number is manifeſtly exaggerated*. In the eccleſiaſtical eſtabliſhment of Great Ruſſia are reckoned only one hundred and fifty-nine monaſteries and ſixty-ſeven nunneries; in the former fifty-three abbots, ninety-nine priors, with 2657 perſons belonging to them, chiefly conſiſting of monks: and in the latter ſixty-ſeven prioreſſes, and 1999 nuns. But herein are not comprized: 1. all the little religious houſes dependent on them, which the members may either maintain at their own expence or ſuffer to fall into decay: 2. thoſe monaſteries which declare that they require no pay but chuſe to ſupport

* At leaſt it bears no proportion to the convents. Mr. Coxe rightly ſtates the nuns at only 1300.

them-

themſelves by voluntary donations, &c. 3. all the monaſteries in Little Ruſſia, as well as, 4. thoſe in White Ruſſia. However, on reckoning all theſe together, we ſhould hardly produce the above number of cloiſters, monks, and nuns. That both Peter I. and ſtill more expreſsly Catharine II. greatly circumſcribed the lazy monaſtic ſtate, ſo detrimental to population, and put it upon quite a different footing, is already univerſally known from other writers.

Some authors have erroneouſly ſuppoſed that the clergy conſiſts entirely of the ſons of prieſts; and that no man of noble birth has ever been admitted into orders. But, though the ſecular prieſts fill moſt of the ſpiritual offices with their children, yet individuals of other ſtations, particularly noblemen, have at all times taken the monaſtic habit, and then been made prieſts. It is but a few years ago that a nobleman, who had been in the military ſervice, was a ſpiritual director in a monaſtery: and a prelate now alive, deſcended from a very honourable ruſſian family, before he entered the church had according to report, received an order of knighthood for his ſervices in the army*. At preſent, however, few nobles feel any violent inclination to become

* However, it is ſaid, that in general it is not much approved of that the clergy ſhould be of noble parentage.

clergymen *, whatever they may have formerly done.

By the laws of Ruſſia no eccleſiaſtic can be brought before a temporal judge, unleſs commiſſaries of the clerical order be likewiſe on the bench †. But, as in examinations that admit of no delay, and muſt be done upon the ſpot, it would be too dilatory if the magiſtrate, for inſtance the commander of the diſtrict, were obliged previouſly to ſend to aſk commiſſaries of the biſhop: therefore, the ſenate, in the year 1791, repreſented to the ſynod, that it were to be wiſhed that the parochial biſhops in every town and diſtrict ſhould appoint ſtated ſpiritual deputies to be preſent at examinations where perſons of the ſacred order might be involved: which the ſynod approved and put into execution.

* It is reported that a very reſpectable prelate, by his remonſtrances, brought it about that ſeveral diſbanded officers (among the reſt a huſſar, by birth a German, but had conformed to the ruſſian church) were admitted ſome years ſince into the cloiſter, and promoted to ſpiritual dignities. Yet theſe are not uſually appointed to village churches, as there the worthieſt clergymen run great hazard of becoming booriſh themſelves, from the total want of any ſocial intercourſe that might ſupply food to their minds, and keep up a dignity of manners: they are commonly obliged to work in the field, the barn, and the ſtable with their own hands.

† The preachers in Livonia and Eſthonia have no ſuch privilege as this to boaſt of: they are obliged to appear by ſummons before every temporal magiſtrate.

Theſe

Theſe ſtated deputies muſt immediately preſent themſelves whenever they are ſummoned to examinations by the town-bailiff or the commandant of the diſtrict.

Concerning the monaſteries it may be obſerved that they all follow the rule of St. Baſil; conſequently but one order of monks is known in Ruſſia. Neither in monaſteries nor in cathedrals have there ever been prebendaries, canons, minor canons, nor any officers of that kind under other names; accordingly there is no chapter to vote in the election of biſhops. Each monaſtery has no more than one ſuperintendant (whether prelate, or abbot, or prior); all the other perſons of the houſe are monks, either eccleſiaſtics or lay-brethren. There never has been an inſtance of a child being placed in a cloiſter for the ſake of making the brothers and ſiſters the richer, or of leſſening the burdens of a numerous family. Women ſeparated or divorced from their huſbands are put into nunneries, but ſeldom or never againſt their conſent.

SECTION III.

Burghers and the Settlers in Towns.

THIS diſtinction is neceſſary, becauſe there are many burghers who do not dwell in towns; for inſtance, german manufacturers: in Livonia the diſpo-

diſponents, placemen, artificers, &c. that live about the country. On the other hand, there are people in the towns that are properly not burghers, ſuch as noblemen, officers of the crown, medical men*; in like manner perſons that remain there only for a time, alſo ſervants, and real boors.

In Ruſſia have always been towns and burghers, as at Novgorod, Kief, Moſco, &c. therefore what Buſching ſays on this ſubject in his Geography needs ſome correction: that "the burghers in "Ruſſia are new, and are grown out of the "boors." The latter is only true of ſome towns, particularly of ſuch as were villages, and have been lately raiſed to corporations. If he mean to advert to the firſt origin of burghers, then the caſe is the ſame in Ruſſia as in all other kingdoms, and eſpecially in his own country, Germany; where the burghers, as we learn from hiſtory, likewiſe aroſe from boors, from unfree peaſants, or vaſſals; which latter cannot be ſaid of the burghers in old ruſſian towns, as they formed themſelves into burgherſhips, while the nation yet knew nothing of unfree perſons or vaſſals. In the provinces of the Baltic, the towns whereof are alſo a part of Ruſſia, I ſhall at preſent ſay nothing.

* According to the new regulation, however, the men of learned profeſſions belong to the burghers.

There-

Therefore, though Ruſſia antiently had towns, yet it muſt be owned that they were but few, and the rights of the burghers were undefined. Even the formerly republican towns, Novgorod and Pſcove, had loſt their rights, which probably were partly but preſumptive; only the baltic towns preſerved their own conſtitutions, rights, and privileges.

The late empreſs by her mandate of 1785 gave a municipal regulation to all her dominions without exception, which is juſtly conſidered as a benefit of uncommon magnitude to the ruſſian towns. Under the foregoing reigns the important object of augmenting the towns, the number of burghers and trade ſeems at times to have been wholly unthought of. It was impoſſible for commerce to thrive, while it was chiefly carried on by vaſſals, and when the towns were too few in number. The countryman found no convenient ſale for his products, and theſe were conſequently not improved. At preſent, to the great advantage of the empire, all theſe matters are ſurpriſingly altered.

SECTION IV.

Free Peaſants.

THIS head, as it is not uſual in claſſifying the ruſſian ſubjects, requires ſome elucidation. Whole multitudes of people, who, in ſome other countries, would, without heſitation, be aſſociated with the boors, demand in treating of the ruſſian empire, a particular claſs; becauſe, by reaſon of their country life, in the ſtricteſt ſenſe, they do not belong to the burghers, while on account of their freedom they are far above the condition of a boor, as a vaſſal*. Betwixt the two they form a middle ſtation. In virtue of their freedom, no man can alienate or ſell them; they educate their children as they pleaſe; the generality of them poſſeſs an immovable property; what they earn no man can take from them, ſo they do but duly pay their common taxes, or perform their ſtated taſks of public labour: they are under no arbitrary command, but, like thoſe of ſuperior ranks, own no authority but that of the general laws of the ſtate. To all who know the value of freedom

* Therefore in this place they are not called boors, becauſe vaſſalage is uſually connected with that idea: however they are often comprehended among the boors even in ſtate-papers and in numbering the people.

it

it will appear then but reaſonable to allot them here a ſeparate claſs *. Yet among them there are different gradations, as all of them do not enjoy the ſame degree of liberty. Some of them are expreſsly called boors, and, without violation of their freedom, are treated as ſuch, though with ſomewhat more gentleneſs than vaſſals. Others have a true civil liberty, and differ only by their place of abode and occupations from town's-people. None of them enjoy ariſtocratical privileges; the particular perſons who have ſoared above their ſtation, and have attained to nobility, dignities, and orders by military ſervice, form no general rule, eſpecially as many that were born vaſſals have done the ſame.

To this claſs belong: 1. The FOREIGN COLONISTS, ſettled here as huſbandmen, or farmers. By their occupation they are boors. But by reaſon of the land given to them, they cannot be ſo called; we muſt, therefore, mitigate the expreſſion by epithets, and term them free german boors †. The german workmen in the mines, and others of a like deſcription, may properly

* They are called countrymen in all the public documents.

† They reaſonably hold the firſt place in the preſent claſs, from the privileges that have been granted them, by which they cannot be judged arbitrarily, but according to the laws, by the judges of the diſtrict; alſo here and there have their own conſtitution; and if they pay back the advance-money they have received, they may draw again.

enough

enough be joined with them; if on account of the ſmallneſs of their numbers we cannot aſſign them a particular ſub-diviſion. But the ruſſian maſter-workmen in the mines belong properly to the boors as being in a ſort of vaſſalage.

2. The ODNODVORTZI, or *one-houſe-owners, belong hereditably to no private perſon, nor can they be hereditably granted to any one†; conſequently they are not vaſſals, not even of the crown‡, though it regards them as ſubjects in the ſtricteſt ſenſe; and therefore at times they are ſent in multitudes to ſome ſeminary of the country-militia on the lines. They poſſeſs their houſes, with the grounds belonging to them, as real property, for which they neither perform feudal ſervice nor give of their products: ſo that they are far better off than the boors. But, as they are obliged to furniſh recruits, to pay the poll-tax

* They have indeed no farm-yard as is cuſtomary in the livonian manors, and therefore might be called one-houſe-holders; yet this expreſſion is not only unuſual, but incomplete, becauſe they poſſeſs more than a houſe; they have lands likewiſe. Some foreigners claſs them with the free-ſettlers; but in a manifeſto of February 18, 1762, they are termed country-ſettlers.

† This privilege is probably not grounded on any written law, but only on immemorial uſage.

‡ That is, when compared with the crown-vaſſals who preſently come under the fifth ſection, and are properly diſtinct from them.

and obrok, to be ſent wherever the good of the empire requires them, and can neither buy villages* nor poſſeſs vaſſals as property†, ſo they belong not, at leaſt now, to the nobility; though they are very apt to reckon themſelves of their claſs, and are ſometimes by others regarded as a ſort of inferior or petty nobleſſe. That they originally formed a part of the ariſtocracy, and gradually ſunk below it, is hardly to be ſuppoſed. It is rather more probable, that when the country people fell into vaſſalage, they preſerved their freedom by ſuch means as they had, and particularly by their landed property‡. Many of them have lately by military ſervice got by degrees to be officers, and conſequently, with their children, are become real noblemen; but then they belong no more to the odnodvortzi. There are among them perſons in good circumſtances. — In ſome

* Eſtates.

† Some of late have indeed bought eſtates with vaſſals; but it is always in the name of ſome nobleman who permits them to uſe it; otherwiſe, by the laws as they exiſt at preſent, they would have to fear a retractation as ſoon as their purchaſe became public. This already ſhews that they do not belong to the nobility, though they ſeem in a manner to be numbered with them in the manifeſto of Feb. 18, 1762.

‡ It is thought by ſome, that, on account of their freedom and their landed property, they belonged formerly to the nobility; but this is a miſtake, for there are people in the empire who poſſeſs hereditary lands, and yet are neither vaſſals nor noblemen.

places

places in their number are reckoned the diſbanded ſoldiers that live in the country: and hence might ariſe the notion, that the odnodvortzi derived their origin from the military ſervice*; and that their anceſtors, being common people, were favoured, on account of their good behaviour, with a poſſeſſion of inheritance in perpetuity, which protected them from vaſſalage. But the great number of them ſeems in ſome meaſure to weaken the probability of this ſuppoſition. Others again give them the ſame origin with the boyar-children, above deſcribed, with the declaration, that thoſe of them who had no boors of their own ſhould be odnodvortzi.

3. The Kozaks in all their ſtems and branches, who poſſeſs their diſtricts, lands, and cow-yards, as real property. Some, for inſtance, thoſe of the Don and the mountains of Ural, pay no poll-tax, but perform military ſervice; others, as thoſe of Little Ruſſia, now pay the poll-tax and deliver recruits out of the regiments raiſed from their own body, but are otherwiſe exempt from military ſervice; others again look after the poſts, furniſh them with horſes and ſhelter, for which, however, they receive a ſlight pay; ſeveral, as the ſiberian Kozaks, repreſent a ſort of petty nobility, as

* Not very different from this is the opinion advanced by M. Purgold, who derives their origin from the priſoners taken in war, which is rather improbable, though ſome of them may be ſprung from priſoners or ſtrangers.

ſome

ſome well-informed german writers have particularly ſhewn. I ſhall only obſerve farther, that at preſent are ſeen among them perſons, who by military ſervice are not only become noble, but have alſo obtained conſiderable dignities and orders of knighthood. — The Kozaks too are regarded by the crown as ſubjects in the ſtricteſt meaning of the term; and therefore at times whole maſſes of them are tranſplanted into other regions.

4. The TARTAR TRIBES. They pay the head-money and furniſh recruits; but poſſeſs their lands as heritable property.

5. The BASHKIRS, VOGULES, KALMUKS, with moſt of the nomadic tribes and people of the ſteppes. Many of them have their own political conſtitutions, and a ſort of nobility among them. Being not vaſſals, and poſſeſſing their lands in inheritance, they fall under this head. However, theſe, eſpecially the Baſhkirs, who perform military ſervice, and the Vogules, are reckoned by ſome writers among the boors of the crown; but this ſhould be done with a kind of limitation.

6. DISBANDED SOLDIERS living in the country. They are called in ukaſes and other public inſtruments, "people of the former diſbanded military "eſtabliſhment." — Formerly, as was obſerved before, the boyar, or nobleman, was bound to appear in the field with his people. When the war was over, he returned to his manſion, and his people were boors as before. At length ſtanding

regiments were eſtabliſhed: the Streltzi were of this ſort. Peter the great created a complete army under this regulation, that, inſtead of the former perſonal ſervice, it ſhould be recruited out of the empire; but whoever was incapable of ſerving any longer, ſhould be diſmiſſed, only with this condition, that he ſhould never again be a vaſſal; and therefore muſt diſtinguiſh himſelf by his dreſs, the ſhaving of his beard *, &c. his reaſon for which was probably that the military might always be held in reſpect. When ſuch diſcarded ſoldiers retired to the country and followed agriculture, they were indeed boors, but free, under the ſovereignty of the crown, ſomewhat like the odnodvortzi. This regulation was continued through the ſucceeding reigns. At that time all recruits went into the forts; where, as in a kind of garriſon, they learnt and enured themſelves to the military profeſſion. At the concluſion of the ſeven years' war, which had coſt the empire great numbers of men, an alteration took place, in order to ſpare the country for ſome time from the

* Not longer than twenty-eight years ſince at every diſmiſſal of an under-officer or common ſoldier, (even though he had not before been a vaſſal, but were a free-born German,) he was expreſsly ordered not to dreſs himſelf like a boor, but to wear german cloaths, to ſhave his beard, &c. — That this is at preſent the practice I ſcarcely believe. But only a few years ago it was done at the diſmiſſion of an under-officer of german noble parentage; probably through an overſight of the chancery.

obliga-

obligation to furniſh recruits. Thenceforward the veteran ſoldiers and invalids came into the garriſons, where they married, and are now a nurſery for the army; as the crown maintains their children and has them brought up as ſoldiers. Ever ſince, the recruits are delivered directly to the regiments. At preſent a ſoldier but ſeldom receives his diſmiſſion, and only in caſes where he can bring vouchers that he is no longer fit for ſervice, but has rich relations, or means of his own whereby to procure a ſufficient maintenance. He from that moment belongs to the claſs of free country-men; and his former lord can never demand him back.

7. EMANCIPATED SERFS, who have either bought their freedom of their lord, or obtained it gratuitouſly in reward for faithful ſervice, &c. Of ſuch are conſiderable numbers in Livonia and Eſthonia. They either gain a livelihood in the country as petty placemen, millers, publicans, &c. or get admitted into the burgherſhip of towns.

8. MALO-RUSSIAN BOORS, or Boors of Little Ruſſia, who are neither Kozaks nor vaſſals, but free people *. They poſſeſs no immovable property, but rent lands of the nobles there, for money, or for certain work to be performed. By the capitation-tax, which they have been obliged to pay ſince 1783, they are now ſomewhat more

* Yet there are ruſſian vaſſals among them.

ſhackled, becauſe they can no longer remove at will from one place to another; but muſt remain in that where they are regiſtered to the capitation, or muſt come to terms with the manorial lord for that purpoſe.

9. FREE PEASANTS, who can neither be ſold nor alienated ſeparately from the land, but belong to the eſtate*; with which they paſs from one lord to another. They may not improperly be reduced to two claſſes: ſome poſſeſſing their land in the manner of a freehold, of which ſort we find many in the government of Vyborg; whereas others live upon the lands of the lord, and pay for the occupancy in money or in ſtated taſks of labour. The latter may quit their place (though not the diſtrict) on offering another boor, acceptable to the ſeignorial lord; who has a right to diſpoſe of them. Some have expreſs privileges peculiar to themſelves†. The education of their children is left to themſelves, who either bring them up to mechanical trades, or get them into ſervice, &c. They dwell either on the crown-lands or on thoſe of the nobles, chiefly in Eſthonia

* Somewhat like glebæ adſcripti. The lord can drive them away from his domain.

† Which they maintain with extreme jealouſy.—Some of theſe boors, though they are ſubject to the domeſtic correction of their landlord, yet they are not entirely under his arbitrary ſway, but are ſtill protected by the laws. Thoſe in the government of Vyborg cannot be puniſhed otherwiſe than conformably to a legal ſentence.

and

and the adjacent iſlands, alſo in Livonia and on the iſle of Runo*.

SECTION V.

Vaſſal boors.

They are uſually called ſimply boors; but here this addition is neceſſary as a diſtinction between them and the preceding free boors. They have no civil liberty; their children belong not to them, but to their manorial lord, on whoſe will they depend; they alſo, with their children, ſingly or in families, may be alienated, ſold, and exchanged; they poſſeſs no immovable property, but they themſelves are treated, ſometimes as the movable, ſometimes as the immovable property of another. They properly therefore form a diſtinct claſs.

Originally they were free; but, in Great Ruſſia, after the turbulent times of the falſe Demetriuſes, became gradually vaſſals, or heritable ſerfs: conſequently it was not by the impoſition of head-money, but long before; for already in the Uloſhenie appear ordinances concerning the ſlaves†, e. g.

* In Eſthonia and Livonia they are called ſwediſh boors, being originally of that country, whence they derive their privileges.

† This expreſſion muſt not here be taken in its ſtricteſt import. Some indeed look upon their vaſſals as ſlaves; but be-

e. g. that, as was mentioned above, they ſhould neither bear witneſs nor bring a complaint againſt their lord *." — Buſching indeed calls the crown-boors as well as the nobility-boors, vaſſals; but when he afterwards adds, "vaſſalage has parti-"cularly remained with the crown-boors," it ſeems rather unintelligible. As theſe, in general, live more comfortably than thoſe of the nobility, perhaps the geographer only meant to ſuggeſt, that, with the latter, vaſſalage had degenerated into ſlavery. But a very great part of them really live in good circumſtances, and are rich. Generally ſpeaking, there is no exceeding great difference between the two: for the crown can make preſents of its boors to private perſons, whenever and in what numbers it will; and then they are immediately treated upon the ſame footing with

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tween the two there is a conſiderable difference; though perhaps an auſtere lord may ſometimes treat his vaſſal as a ſlave, at leaſt when under the influence of paſſion. Mr. Coxe is in a miſtake when he calls the condition of the ruſſian boors a perfect ſlavery. This term in no reſpect applies to the crown-boors. Even thoſe belonging to the nobles have certain rights; for inſtance, the lord cannot put them to death, cannot prevent them from marrying, cannot violate their wives and daughters, &c. Were he to do ſo; it would be wrong and contrary to law, and might be attended with legal cenſures.

* Hence it is obſervable, that the boyars had an influence in the making of the Uloſhenie, and did not forget their prerogatives over the boors.

the other nobility boors. — Many of the former have long ſince become merchants*. Others of both ſorts are ſtill boors, but at the ſame time carry on ſome trade, either on their own account alone, or in company with merchants. Others again have got themſelves inſcribed in towns as traders, paying their taxes as ſuch, and at the ſame time as boors. The majority of them purſue huſbandry, take to the fiſheries, or follow ſome other profitable occupation.

They are commonly divided into three kinds; but it ſeems requiſite to part them into four.

1. CROWN-BOORS †. Theſe are extremely numerous. In the government of Penne they form the greater part of the peaſantry. But at the ſame time it muſt be obſerved, that there all the people belonging to the crown are reckoned its vaſſals, and therefore called crown-boors; and thus, not only the Ruſſians, but alſo the Tartars, Baſhkirs, Permiaks, Siryanes, Vogules, and many others, paſs under that denomination. Yet, though this be the caſe ſometimes even in the chanceries, it is but reaſonable to make a diſtinction between boors whom the crown, as its real vaſſals, can grant away, and who poſſeſs no real property; and thoſe tribes of people who are owners of immovable poſſeſſions, and enjoy certain rights and

* An ukaſe gave occaſion to this.

† In Livonia they are vulgarly called public boors.

privileges. Therefore thoſe people ſeem to belong to the foregoing claſs. However, we muſt not omit to mention, that there are alſo real vaſſal-boors belonging to the crown, which the crown cannot with propriety give away, they being attached as workmen to the mines either of the crown or of private individuals, that they may earn wherewith to pay their head-money, and who could not be removed without conſiderable detriment to the mine-works. Such are called, Pripiſniye, i. e. inrolled; and they are many thouſands in number. That, formerly, on account of ſome oppreſſions they ſuffered from private proprietors of mines, they would ſometimes riſe tumultuouſly, but that the late empreſs, ſome years ago iſſued a very gracious ukaſe for their protection, has been already noticed under the article of mines. Since that time, whenever a maſter-miner or any of his ſubſtitutes, thinks fit to deal more harſhly with them than the letter of the law allows, they have a right to bring their complaint before the proper judge.

The taxes and impoſts of the crown-boors are not in all places alike. Moſt of them, beſides the head-money, pay alſo the obrok, i. e. a ſum of money for every male ſoul; and this is the only benefit the crown derives from them. In ſome diſtricts they do taſk-work *; or they pay of their

* Somewhat of a ſimilar nature with what was in France called the *corvée*.

pro-

products; or, as in Livonia, both at once, inſtead of the obrok. However, great attention has always been paid to the mitigation of their lot; unleſs we except their former hard uſage at the mines; and therefore they live more happily than the generality of the noble-boors; nay even more at their eaſe than many free people. Among them are ſome that are in good circumſtances, and might even be called rich. Indeed they would not feel their vaſſalage, if the crown could not grant them away; as they then run the hazard of falling under the yoke of a hard maſter.

In ukaſes and public documents they are uſually mentioned under ſeveral denominations: as divided into boors of the black-plough, boors of the empire, imperial boors, poſt-boors *, and court-boors. By what particulars each kind is diſtinguiſhed from the others I have not been able with any certainty to learn. A general-officer, who had paſſed many years in the ſeveral provinces, and had made repeated inquiries, gave me the following account in regard to the firſt-mentioned diſtinction: "Boors of the white-plough formerly meant thoſe "who, without performing taſk-work, and paying "taxes in products, defrayed their impoſts in "ready money; on the other hand, thoſe of "the black-plough were ſuch as, together with "ſome perſonal præſtanda, (which were not always

* Yamſchtſhiki.

"in

" in all provinces of a like nature,) were to pay
" their taxes by the tenth of every corn-harveſt.
" Theſe, as well as the former, muſt, beſides this,
" pay their head-money, as a ſtated contingent
" to the military cheſt: but both were free boors
" of the crown; and, in common with all other
" boors, muſt likewiſe furniſh recruits. Whether,
" amidſt ſo many alterations that have of late
" years been made, theſe diſtinctions are ſtill
" obſerved, is more than I can tell; I only know
" that the taxes have been very much increaſed."

From ſome oral and ſome written accounts, I may preſent the reader with the following authentic, though not complete information * on the ſubject:

In the ruſſian laws and ukaſes eight diſtinct kinds of crown-boors are mentioned; namely, 1. Empire-boors †; they belong to nobody in particular, neither to the court, nor to the nobility, nor to the monaſteries; they are therefore members of the empire or burghers of the empire ‡. They for the moſt part conſiſt of boors of the black plough, to be mentioned preſently, *art.* 3.

* On inquiry, ſeveral perſons, from whom ſome light was reaſonably to be expected on this matter, honeſtly confeſſed that they had never troubled their heads about it; ſo that what information was obtained was got with great difficulty.

† Goſudarſtvennıye.

‡ This expreſſion is to be taken in a quite peculiar ſenſe; and even then will be but obſcure.

2. Impe-

2. Imperial boors *, who belong to the monarch perſonally, or rather to the court; of whom moſtly conſiſt the court-boors, *art.* 6; others are regiſtered to the ſavodes, or manufactories, where a number of workmen are engaged. 3. Boors of the black plough †. The origin of this appellation is now no longer known. But a great part of northern Ruſſia as far as Archangel, is almoſt entirely inhabited by them. Their regions are divided into voloſts ‡, each whereof is an actual, though not an independent, republic. In other reſpects they principally belong to the claſs of empire-boors, *art.* 1. §. 4. Poſt-boors ‖; they are bound, in lieu of the impoſts, to keep poſt-horſes, and have their name from yam, which ſignifies poſt-ſtation; but between every two yamui are ſeveral poſt-ſtations ♪. 5. Court-boors ξ are they whoſe ſervice and tributes are deſtined to the

* Gofudarevui. † Tſhernofoſtniye.

‡ Territories.

§ The author of a paper in the hiſtorical magazine of Gottingen, dated from Peterſburg, ſays: the boors of the black plough were crown-boors who were obliged to perform certain ſervices, or pay tithe, for the land allotted them. But all crown-boors are obliged to this. — The truth is, that thoſe of the black plough pay for their fields a ſort of tithe in natura; I ſuppoſe we ſhould call it ſoccage.

‖ Yamtſhtſhiki.

♪ Yam ſignifies a ſort of place provided with all requiſites for the keeping in readineſs of poſt-horſes, which they muſt provide.

ξ Dvortzovuiye.

ſupport

ſupport of the imperial court* (not to the cabinet's expences). They were formerly under the great court chancery †, whence they have their name. But this being ſince aboliſhed, and all thoſe eſtates and boors being now under the kameralhof, the ſum of three millions is annually paid for it from the government-coffers ‡ to the court, or rather to the exchequer §. Nevertheleſs the boors will for a long time continue to bear the old name of dvortzovniye, as well as the two next following ſorts of them. 6. ‖ Monaſtery-boors, who formerly belonged to the monaſteries, but now every where in Great, Little, and White Ruſſia, are under the kameralhofs. Properly ſpeaking they belong to the article that immediately enſues. 7. Œconomy-boors ♪ were in Great Ruſſia thoſe boors who, about the year 1764,

* It was ordered by Peter I. that certain boors ſhould pay their taxes (1) at his court or other of his palaces, as the funds whereby the court or ſuch particular palace was to be ſupported. Of this kind of court-boors are thoſe enregiſtered at Katarinenthal near Reval; the caſtle at Riga has alſo five thouſand of them. In many places they poſſeſs no lands, but maintain themſelves by various kinds of mechanical employments, as carpenters, bricklayers, &c. or as fiſhermen. Their taxes are received by the kameralhof, but particularly applied, or directly ſent to the empreſs's private purſe.

† Glavnaya dvortzovaya kantzelyariya.

‡ Statnoiye kaſnatſheiſtvo. § Pridvornaya kantora.

‖ Monaſtirſkiye. ♪ Ekonomitſheſkiye.

(1) Head-money and obrok.

were

were taken from the monaſteries and churches, and made ſubordinate to a particular college of œconomy erected for that purpoſe. That is now aboliſhed, and the boors are under the kameral-hofs, but continue to bear their former name. 8. Peltry-tribute-paying boors * are thoſe who deliver their tributes in peltry or furs; which tribute is termed yaſak; and hence theſe latter alſo preſerve their antient appellation †.

One privilege of the crown-boors, which foreigners are not acquainted with, requires to be mentioned. It conſiſts in this, that they may buy of noblemen villages and lands, with the vaſſals belonging to them. In an eſpecial ordinance of the late empreſs, of Aug. 29, 1766, it is ſaid: "The "boors of the court-eſtates are permitted to pur- "chaſe of the adjacent owners, ſmall villages "with lands; paying for a ſoul not more than "thirty rubles; however, with this condition, that "the court-boors who have bought the ſaid lands, "either for their own or the crown's money, pay "for every deſætine ‡ of land one ruble twenty-

* Yaſaſhnuiye.

† The yaſaſhnuiye, the monaſtirſkiye, &c. are therefore ſtill continued in the ukaſes, of which the general regulation for the raiſing of recruits throughout the empire affords a proof. — All theſe ruſſian expreſſions are only adjectives, uniformly relating to the ſubſtantive kreſtyani, boors.

‡ Throughout Ruſſia all ground is eſtimated and apportioned by deſyatines, (or deſætines,) each eighty fathom long and thirty fathom broad.

"five

" five kopecks, obrok to the crown." In another, of January 29, 1788, this privilege is extended to other boors and yamtshiks. That these purchases likewise are really made is seen from an ukase issued to the senate in November 1789, containing not only blank forms and explanations for the provincial governors concerning this matter, but also two instances appear from it of such purchase; one at Murauslanka, in the skopinskoi district of the government of Riæsan; where a desettine and a half of land was bought, with the boors upon it. (The kameralhof there inquire of the senate concerning this purchase, as they see no utility to the crown arising from it). The other is an instance of the select-men of the boors in the village of Paryanof in the government of Yaroslaf, who bought of a major's lady, a boor with his wife, and some land contiguous to the village.

If foreigners should imagine that the ordering of odnodvortzi and kozaks into other parts, or the granting away crown-boors as an heritable fief to private persons, is a degradation of mankind, lowering them to the rank of beasts of the field *; they should recollect, that in all empires, and at all times, whole provinces, with the whole of their inhabitants, have passed over to other masters, not only by war, conquest, marriage, resignation,

* Some travellers, in their accounts of Russia, have said, that in that empire the peasants scarcely enjoy the rights of cattle.

treaty,

treaty, and teſtamentary bequeſts, but alſo by purchaſe. An inſtance of this laſt may be brought from Germany; where it is well known the emperor Charles IV. purchaſed the mark of Brandenburg of the elector Otho, in the year 1373; and the emperor Sigiſmund ſold them again in 1417 to Frederic burggraf of Nurenburg*. This may ſerve to ſhew at leaſt that the practice is not peculiar to Ruſſia.

2. ŒCONOMY-BOORS. Theſe belonged formerly to the biſhops, churches, and monaſteries; but were taken from them in the year 1764, and placed under the direction of a college of œconomy, from which they have ever ſince had their name; and are now on much the ſame footing with the crown-boors. Being, like them, under the inſpection of the kameralhofs and economy-directors, paying particular taxes and enjoying certain privileges: ſo they no longer need to be diſtinguiſhed, but may properly be aſſociated with the crown-boors.

3. BOORS OF THE MINES. They require to be particularized, as ſo peculiarly belonging to private mine-works, that they can never be ſeparated from them, therefore they can never be ſold or exchanged apart, though they are transferable with the works to another maſter. However, here are not in-

* In this ſale it is notorious that noblemen, burghers, and boors, with their ſeveral poſſeſſions, were included. They were all ſold together.

cluded

cluded those crown-boors who are termed pripisniye, and are attached to the mine-works solely for working out their head-money. Accordingly, only those are meant who act as master-workmen, and are delivered as recruits from the boors belonging to the crown and the nobles; but are conveyed as property to the mine-proprietors, yet as inseparable from the works; and the proprietary mine-boors, whom the crown grants of its vassals to numbers of mine-owners, who have no boors belonging to them, as permanent workmen, yet in such manner that they dwell on the territory of the works, belong heritably to such proprietary, (but only so long as he is master of the works,) and must bring up their children solely for that mine-work.

4. NOBLE, OR PRIVATE BOORS. Several authors, and among them our countryman Perry, give a lamentable account of their condition. It is, however, not only exaggerated, but almost always represented in too general a manner. There are indeed lords who strain their exactions too far, and oppress their vassals; yet this can only be said of those who require too great and too various tributes, or of some of the country-nobles, particularly the poorer of them, who carry on the farming business themselves, or leave it to the management of some mercileſs upravitel, or overseer, who by birth is only a vassal himself. Their condition, indeed, depends entirely on the humour or caprice of

of their lord *; yet it is not to be denied that a great part of them, eſpecially ſuch as belong to wealthy lords, who require neither taſk-ſervice nor deliveries of products, but only take a moderate obrok, live happily, grow rich, and would hardly be perſuaded to change their condition for what paſſes under the name of freedom, but is commonly nothing more than a brilliant conceit. As an inſtance we need only take the village Boretſh, not far from Moſco, belonging to count Vladimir Orlof, and which may be viſited by any traveller that chooſes. There every cottage nearly reſembles a little hotel; the people go dreſſed in ſilks, have coſtly furniture and utenſils, live on a grand ſcale, and entertain ſumptuouſly the numerous ſtrangers that viſit them; they keep up a connexion not only with merchants in the adjacent towns, but inſtead of agriculture follow gardening, from which, on account of their proximity to Moſco, they derive great profits: whereby they are enabled to live as they do. Neither muſt it be ſuppoſed that theſe are the only vaſſals that live in affluence; as, beſides the rich villages Ivanſka and Pavloffſki, belonging to count Sheremetyef, there are many others, which eſcape the notice of foreigners in their haſty travels, who

* The ſame thing happens in the petty principalities of Germany: ſome of the princes by gentle treatment render their ſubjects happy, while others oppreſs them by taxes, impoſts, and harſh methods.

from ſome poor ones are too apt to conclude on all; and it is not ſurpriſing that, from the wretched looks of the Eſthonians, they ſhould be led into this miſtake.

The dues to their lord are ſettled by no laws; ſome pay the obrok, others perform taſk-ſervice, or, in lieu of it, deliver certain portions of their natural products; from others again all theſe are demanded; however, the obrok alone, eſpecially where the lord is rich, is the moſt uſual. Many take, for every male head only three, others five, and ſome, from the moſt opulent of their boors, twenty-five rubles, or even more. — Thoſe who fare the worſt are the private boors who are obliged to perform taſk-ſervice, in lieu of the obrok, at the mine-works of their lord, which may lie at a great diſtance; and perhaps the length of the way is not at all conſidered *.

For this uſefulneſs of ſubjects, which brings the government ſo many important products, at the ſame time giving energy to the army and navy, and contributing the moſt to the public revenues, not much care had been taken during the former reigns, though the intereſt of the ſovereign and the empire ſo eſſentially required it. Even Peter I. engaged as he was in ſo many important undertakings, could perhaps find no time for properly

* Thus profeſſor Pallas tells us, that ſome of Mr. Demidof's boors have above ſix hundred verſts, or about five hundred engliſh miles, to go to work at their maſter's iron works.

attend-

attending to this object. So much the more earneſtly was it taken up by the late empreſs. A ſtriking proof of it is ſeen in her inſtruction for the code of laws *; wherein ſhe not only praiſes the Japaneſe for the maxim adopted by them, that ſervants ought not to be too harſhly treated, as it readily leads to reſiſtance †; but ſhe declares expreſsly ‡ her diſſatisfaction at the ſeverity with which this inferior claſs is ſometimes treated: "However, it cannot be denied (ſays the empreſs) that they are at times much oppreſſed." And then declares it to be her wiſh and her inclination that vaſſalage ſhould be aboliſhed; but, if this ſhould meet with obſtacles, yet that the condition of the boors might be bettered, and all oppreſſive abuſes ſtopped. Not contented however, with expreſſing her wiſhes, ſhe did actually adopt ſeveral meaſures to effectuate her benevolent diſpoſitions, by inſtituting a regular tribunal for the boors, entirely choſen out of their own body; delivering the boors at the mines from oppreſſion; appointing overſeers and guardians to prevent every ſpecies of violence, &c. and on every occaſion recommending gentleneſs and humanity, of which ſhe herſelf ſet ſo great an example. All is not to be brought about at once, eſpecially in

* Inſtructions, ſect. xcii.

† A very important hint, and highly deſerving of conſideration.

‡ Inſtruct. part ii. ſect. iii. p. 190 & ſeqq.

matters where the antient prerogatives of the nobility demand a diſcreet reſpect.

It was probably in conſequence of this imperial declaration, that the free œconomical ſociety at St. Peterſburg, a few years ſince propoſed the important political queſtion: Whether it would be proper to aboliſh vaſſalage in Ruſſia, with a prize for the moſt ſatisfactory anſwer? The ſociety received papers in the french language from ſeveral candidates; one, extolling liberty, but adviſing great caution in the introducing of it. Another Frenchman * ſent an elegant diſſertation, which, with all its beauties of diction, was found impracticable: it was like an alarm-bell †, recommending the immediate diffuſion of liberty throughout the country. On this ſubject a great variety of matters come into conſideration. For, to mention only a few, it is well known that the crown is not willing to interfere directly in concerns between the nobles and their boors, when the rights of the former may come in colliſion: ſecondly, the crown-boor, while he continues ſuch, feels his vaſſalage but little, if at all: thirdly, many vaſſals live more happily than if they were free. Let us only compare the ſubſtantial and ſometimes opulent ruſſian boor with the peaſantry of ſome

* Probably, Marmontel, at leaſt from the captivating ſtyle and other characteriſtics, he was generally held to be the author.

† This was the title to the manuſcript.

other

other countries, needy and crushed under taxes, while they boast of their liberty. Fourthly, if liberty should be suddenly and generally introduced, it must be done by an edict: but what confusion would not hence arise, as the people have no idea of liberty but by its connection with licentiousness? fifthly, the boor must always pay taxes; if they be moderate, he may still live comfortably in his way; whether we call him vassal, or even slave, for the name signifies nothing. Even the task-works are often easier than the heavy sums that are paid for every article of life by taxes in many countries. Sixthly, it has been remarked, that by task-works more products are gained, especially with great land-owners. Seventhly, the introduction of liberty might be very prejudicial, not only to the mine-works, but also to agriculture; nay, it already appears that, by extending the obrok, in several districts the latter has suffered a decline. Eighthly, what should the boor do with liberty if he be forbidden to possess heritable property*? &c. If, as was done in the late reign, care be taken to protect the peasantry against oppressors, and some bounds be set to the power of the nobles; if the utmost endeavours be used to keep the taxes moderate, and the

* It might indeed be gradually permitted him, but it would be attended with a thousand difficulties, especially in regard to the noble-boors.

hope of being allowed boldly to poſſeſs ſome property, though it be only perſonal, be not defeated, but rather eſtabliſhed; then even the vaſſal may live contented and happy in his humble habitation. And in ſuch good circumſtances very many of the boors belonging to the crown and the nobles actually are. This was evidently becoming more general from day to day, as the empreſs ſo uniformly diſplayed her unwearied attention to promote the welfare of the claſs of vaſſals. Examples were not wanting under her adminiſtration, of noblemen being brought to ſevere account for cruelties exerciſed on their vaſſals *. Indeed the many wiſe regulations that had been made, and were ſtill making to the end of her reign, opened a fine proſpect for futurity.

In concluding this article, it may be obſerved, that the moſt uſual way by which a vaſſal is ſuch, is by being born of a vaſſal †. By the common law

* A german nobleman, with his lady, have been confined for ſeveral years paſt in a place on the ſhore of the Baltic, for having, both of them, exerciſed much cruelty in the chaſtiſement of their vaſſals. — The very ſafety of the lord, without any other motive, ſhould reſtrain him from ſuch behaviour to his people. When once they are enraged they ſet no bounds to their fury; it has not unfrequently happened that a too auſtere landlord, or his no leſs imprudent bailiff, has been miſerably murdered by the boors.

† In Livonia, the laws mention ſome other ways; however they are ſeldom heard of at preſent. There have been caſes, where

law of Livonia every child born of an unmarried female vaſſal belongs, without regard to the father, to the eſtate where it is born. Peter I. however, by an ukaſe in 1716, ordained, that ſuch a child ſhall be free if a free man have cauſed it to be baptiſed in his name, as father.

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where free people or their children have been ſold for vaſſals; yet the tribunals grant them relief, at leaſt the latter, when they come to demand their freedom.

VIEW

OF THE

RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

BOOK V.

THE GOVERNMENT OF THE EMPIRE, OR THE MONARCH.

THE importance and the variety of the objects that fall under this title, demand a particular diviſion of our work. But, in order to bring into ſome ſort of arrangement the obſervations that naturally occur, ſome whereof may be conſidered as mere ſuppoſitions, and others as only queſtions*; we ſhall reduce them, without much ſollicitude in the choice, under ſeveral heads.

* At this the reader will not be ſurpriſed if he conſider that this matter has been but little agitated; and that the inquirer muſt frequently meet with obſcurities, which probably will never be quite cleared up.

SEC-

SECTION I.

The Succeſſion.

RUSSIA, as far upwards as hiſtory reaches, has ever been an hereditary empire. For, though Rurik, on being called to the throne, did not aſcend it on this expreſs condition*, yet it was filled by his deſcendants till the race became extinct; that is, according to the uſual computation, from about the year 862 to 1598. Such an uninterrupted ſucceſſion, againſt which the nation never manifeſted the ſlighteſt objection, be it grounded as it may, is of greater validity than the moſt ſolemn compact, and ſhould be conſidered as the acknowledged conſtitution of the empire. The people, at leaſt the moſt enlightened of them, found it convenient and ſalutary, as obviating the confuſions and calamities that ariſe from election. Accordingly, after the extinction of the race of Rurik, it was reſtored with all its force in another dynaſty. For, when Mikhaila Feodorovitch Romanof aſcended the throne in 1613, a charter was executed confirming it to him and

* Records which might here be conſulted to advantage are not known, and perhaps are not in being. The archives of the empire have been ſearched in vain for accounts of a far more modern date.

all

all his poſterity*; by which act Ruſſia was in a formal manner declared a real hereditary empire.

The occaſional modifications of this hereditary right of ſucceſſion may be ſuppoſed, from want of records, to be ſcarcely reducible from remoter periods, eſpecially as hiſtory, which ought to ſerve as a guide, relates events whence many doubts and uncertainties ariſe. The ſon does not always immediately ſucceed to his father in the government: one example of this, among others, is in the grand prince Vladimir Vſevolodovitch, who, dying in 1125, was ſucceeded by his three ſons in the order of their birth; only the third, namely Vatſchaf, reigned at laſt for ſome time conjointly with the ſon of his brother. It has frequently happened that the ſons of the deceaſed grand prince have contended for the throne with their uncles. However, in early times a great regard was paid to ſeniority; thus Sviætopolk in 1093 mounted the throne, as the eldeſt of the reigning family. Therefore when Peter I. wanted to introduce ſome alteration in the antient rule of ſucceſ-

* This appears from Schloetzer's hiſtorical enquiry, p. 10. where it is alſo ſhewn that the original is among the archives of the empire, as that profeſſor ſaw it there. The queſtion, whether they who executed it were authorized and commiſſioned to that purpoſe, or whether they repreſented the nation, is nothing to the buſineſs, as the latter approved of it, at leaſt by their ſilence; and this hereditary right was already ſeven hundred years old.

ſion,

ſion, he was obliged to add ſharp menaces to his declaration; and yet great diſſatisfaction was ſhewn on the occaſion, though even by that ordinance the original ſucceſſion was not deſtroyed; and though there was no law in being to regulate the ſucceſſion, at leaſt none that is now known.

The hiſtory of the eighteenth century * ſhews that the crown devolves on either ſex without diſtinction; ſo that, though we ſee in the family of Peter I. the male heir at times to have precedence, it is not an abſolute pre-eminence over the females, ſince Catharine I. did not govern as regent during the minority of her kinſman, but was acknowledged as next heir in quality of conſort to the defunct emperor, and acceded to the throne as empreſs in preference to her kinſman †. Some do not ſcruple to affirm that Ruſſia has always been the happieſt and has always increaſed in power and authority under a female reign.

* To attempt going farther back into remoter periods would be fruitleſs, as moſt of the events of thoſe times, for want of a regular hiſtory, are by much not ſufficiently known or unfolded. For this reaſon nothing is here ſaid of the grand ducheſs Olga, of the tenth century, &c.

† The Chineſe muſt have been but little acquainted with the european forms of government, as well as with the antient hiſtory of Perſia, if we may judge by the aſtoniſhment expreſſed at this by their great officers of ſtate: but they were ſoon taught better.

We

We learn from hiſtory that ſometimes the monarch has been elected. It was by election that Vaſſilli Vaſſillievitch the Blind was ſeated on the throne. But the lateſt inſtance of this was when the crown was offered to the dowager ducheſs, afterwards empreſs Anne. By her father ſhe had ſome right to it, but by far not the neareſt, as her elder ſiſter was ſtill alive, and the teſtament of Catharine I. was againſt her. But who were the electors, or rather who have the right of election, and in what caſes, we have no other means of diſcovering than by ſearching into hiſtory for events of that nature, and thence to form what concluſions we are able, ſince there is no written law upon the ſubject. Without going up to the reign of a Rurik for tranſactions veiled in obſcurity, the hiſtory of the middle age takes notice of the grand duke Vaſſilli Vaſſillievitch the Blind, who in 1425 took the reins of empire, being placed on the grand princely throne at the unanimous requeſt of the moſcovite people, with the concurrence of all the princes, as alſo of the clergy *. It ſeemed neceſſary to mention this, becauſe here certain electors are ſpecified, namely, people, princes, and clergy; in which, however, ſeveral doubts and difficulties occur. Beſides,

* So Lomonoſof expreſsly ſays in his compendious annals of the ruſſian ſovereigns. I take him for a guide, on the ſuppoſition that he has drawn from authentic ſources. It is impoſſible to quote originals on this ſubject.

this

this event belongs not properly to this place, as that grand prince demanded the government by right of ſucceſſion, and the horde had at that time great influence. Examples ought to be taken from thoſe times when the nation was entirely free, and under no foreign influence whatever. Such as when Boris Feodorovitch Godunof, in 1598, was ſeated on the throne "by the peo-"ple* and the boyars;" and on his death, in 1604, his ſon Feodor Borifovitch Godunof, "by "all ranks of the moſcovite people." Shortly after this, Vaſſilli Ivanovitch Zuiſkoi was elected tzar†. During his reign ſome diſcontented boyars elected Vladiſlaf, a poliſh prince, to be their ſovereign, but without effect‡. In the year 1613 Mikhaila Feodorovitch Romanof acceded to the throne by unanimous election "in a general aſ-"ſembly of the boyars and the other eſtates of "the country," yet partly alſo as a near relation

* Lomonoſof, p. 37. Another hiſtorian ſays, that the people almoſt forced him on the throne. But here neither the princes nor the clergy are mentioned as electors: the former perhaps are included among the boyars.

† Here Lomonoſof does not at all ſpecify who the electors were; probably becauſe the authorities he conſulted are ſilent upon it. — It is well known they were all three related to the tzarian family, extinct in the male line.

‡ The above-mentioned elections ſhew, that, with the relations of the reigning family, ſtrangers and native or foreign princes came into conſideration.

to

to the tzarian family now extinct in the male lineage; as also in virtue of nomination, by which his father had already been heir to the throne.

Now the first question is, who are we to understand by the people? Lomonosof speaks principally of the moscovite people, which is an expression of great ambiguity; for it may denote the burghers of the city of Mosco, exclusively; but then it must have been previously a city: in no law or proclamation is such right of election granted to it; whereas to other cities (several of which are far more antient) this right has been given. But it may likewise signify all the people of the whole empire, which is sometimes denominated from its metropolis: however, it is not to be imagined, that the distant tribes and people were ever called to an election. Lastly, by this term may be implied only the chief nation, that which is properly russian: yet certainly the country-folks, the most numerous of all, were not consulted on these important occasions. Consequently, we must suppose it to have rested with some *; who took the business upon them, or who had the confidence of the nation; and then, as the people approved of their choice, at least by their silence, it might properly be said that they

* It would be difficult to ascertain them; we must undoubtedly seek them among the following, as the archives of the empire afford no light on the subject.

elected.

elected *. Beſides, as it often happens on like occaſions, the people of the capital, or the Moſcovites, under the conduct of a few forward and leading men, might have greatly contributed to it †.

2dly, The princes here ſpoken of ſeem to have been either of that claſs who were afterwards called boyars, or they who poſſeſſed their partitioned principalities. Of the latter we find it ſaid by a ruſſian hiſtorian ‡, that, ſubſequent to the death of Mſtiſlaf, they had arrogated to themſelves ſo much power, that they looked upon the grand prince as their equal, and allowed him no

* What is done by ſome few, if not contradicted by the reſt, is frequently and not improperly conſidered as done by all. Thus the empreſs Elizabeth in her firſt manifeſto might juſtly ſay, that all good ſubjects had wiſhed her to mount the paternal throne. And the empreſs Anna might, without adducing other reaſons, annul the election-capitulation ſhe had ſigned, ſince ſhe regarded herſelf as heireſs to the crown, and was petitioned to annul it by a number of conſiderable noblemen, in the name of the people.

† In the ſucceeding revolutions the populace of the reſidence, being ſet in motion, have ſometimes, aided by ſome ſoldiers of the guards, made themſelves of conſequence. And, indeed, how eaſy is it for a few active perſons, by preſents, promiſes, artful reports, and above all by the pretence of danger to religion, to lead the rabble at their pleaſure; ſo that they may be inſtrumental to revolutions and other purpoſes, though perhaps ſcarcely ten perſons of them all know any thing of what is intended! Happy, when ſuch ſcenes paſs off without diſturbance!

‡ Tatiſchtſchef.

pre-

precedence except what his title gave him. Such princes have long ſince been no more ſeen in Ruſſia; but when Vaſſilli Vaſſillievitch the Blind was elected they were ſtill in being. The preſent numerous ſtock of princes are no legitimate delegates of the people, nor ever were authorized to proceed to ſo important an election, and have no pre-eminence over the reſt of the nobles.

3. The clergy, as in other empires and kingdoms, found alſo in Ruſſia numerous opportunities formerly of acquiring great influence and authority *. Accordingly, we are informed by Tatiſchtſchef, that in the diſaſtrous periods of the empire, the people ſhewed more reverence to them than to their princes; by which they got ſo far the aſcendant, that tzar Alexey Mikhailovitch was prevented from making the full uſe of his power, by the ambitious patriarch Nikon. Accordingly it muſt have been a very eaſy matter for the clergy, eſpecially for the higher orders of them, to mix in the affair of elections, and to lead the ſubmiſſive people to their purpoſes. Nor was this impropriety entirely annihilated till the time of Peter the Great, who confined the clergy to their proper department.

* As in other countries, ſo in Ruſſia, they had a little more knowledge than the laity; hence they acquired acceſs and influence. In aid of this perhaps now and then ſuperſtition and cunning were made to play their parts.

4. The boyars have been already occaſionally mentioned. It only remains to be remarked, that though they are always ſpoken of in hiſtory as perſons of diſtinction, yet it expreſsly mentions that they received their dignity from the ſovereign alone, that it was entirely perſonal, and by no means deſcended from father to ſon *. Hence it is apparent that it depended ſolely on the will of the monarch, whether he would have many or few boyars, or whether he would let them altogether die away. Conſequently they can never be conſidered as native privileged deputies of the people †, nor as perſons who could curb the power of the ſovereign, or reſiſt him in the undue exertions of it. Only on favourable occaſions they grew more bold and aſſuming, and ſought to extend their conſequence. It has before been ſhewn that they, with the principal clergy, conferred a ſpecies of nobleſſe on particular perſons; and Tatiſchtſchef mentions, that, upon the depoſition

* As a proof of this the reader is referred to the life of count Scheremetof, publiſhed in Dohm's Materials; where we find, p. 403, that Nikita Scheremetof dying as boyar in 1566, his only ſon Peter was raiſed to the ſame dignity, whoſe ſecond ſon Vaſſilli was likewiſe made boyar in 1641, and again his ſon Peter in 1659.

† What the word boyar or boyarin properly means, I cannot preciſely aſcertain. In the dictionaries it is made to imply a lord, a perſon of quality, a nobleman. In a note upon Raicewich's obſervations on Moldavia, it peculiarly denotes a ſoldier.

of

of tzar Zuiſkoi, ſeven boyars, and eſpecially three of them, had uſurped ſo much authority, that they brought great diſtreſs upon the empire. At the drawing up of the Uloſhenie, as we gather from its preamble, they, with the heads of the clergy, were conſulted upon it; yet probably only as privy-counſellors, ſince they were generally noticed as ſuch in the ukaſes. But, in order to prevent any farther uſurpations and miſtakes, an order was iſſued in 1701 by Peter I. that they ſhould no longer be mentioned at all in ukaſes. From the great authority they enjoyed, and from the deſire of extending it, ſo natural to man, we are eaſily led to preſume, that they acted the foremoſt parts in theſe elections, if they were not the prime managers of them: they doubtleſs thought themſelves the firſt perſonages after the ſovereign and the privileged repreſentatives of the people, eſpecially of all the reſt of the nobility; and this ſeems to be the reaſon why the latter are not named among the electors.

5. The eſtates of the moſcovite people, and the eſtates of the country. — What kind of people and claſſes are here meant, I cannot pretend to ſay, if they differ from thoſe already mentioned. Legitimate national eſtates, having an authority derived from compact or privileges, (according to the common import of the term in ſome other empires,) are not known in Ruſſia; nor could they ever have exiſted there, as the power of the

ſovereign was originally and has always been unlimited. One might almoſt venture to affirm, that, by the eſtates, as electors, are principally meant the boyars and the clergy, who appear nominally as ſuch, and often had great influence. Perhaps ſome of the courtiers and the neighbouring nobility, might have joined with them, as well as other enterpriſing perſons, and eſpecially the people of the reſidence*; other towns whoſe conſequence was not very great, we are certain neither appointed nor required any election-deputies. Lomonoſof, indeed, ſpeaks of a general aſſembly of national-eſtates; but it would be extremely difficult to give any tolerable ſenſe to this expreſſion if we would extend the limits of ſuch a convention beyond the above-mentioned perſons in the neighbourhood of Moſco. For, although ſome traces of conſiderable aſſemblies do appear in hiſtory†; yet, at leaſt in thoſe turbulent and

* All theſe are mere ſurmiſes. The acts and records of theſe elections, perhaps among the archives of the empire, alone could place this matter in a proper light, if they were but known.

† Not to touch here on what Neſtor tells us of Rurik's election, in which obſcurities abound, I ſhall only quote what Tatiſchtſchef mentions, that Romanus, prince of Halitch, intended to hold a diet, to which he invited all the princes; but they did not come; and that Ivan the Great cauſed a law to be confirmed in a diet. — At the compiling of the Uloſhenie the boyars and clergy ſeem to have been aſſembled; but not in a diet. The two latter had a legitimate chief in the perſon of the ſovereign.

ſtormy times, about the year 1613, when the family of Romanof was elected to the ſucceſſion, a convocation of election-deputies out of the empire is not to be imagined; and if they were actually aſſembled, it would have been nothing more than an anarchical mob, as having no lawful preſident or ſpring of action; conſequently no other election was to be expected, than what ſome enterpriſing men, with violence, or by bribes and perſuaſions, brought about.

In the former half of the eighteenth century, it ſeemed as if the council held itſelf authoriſed to take an active part in the election of the empreſs Anna *. Indeed it is ſaid in the manifeſto that came out on the occaſion, Feb. 4, 1730, that ſhe was raiſed to the throne by the unanimous choice of the ruſſian nation: there were, therefore, three deputed bodies at it, on the part of the council, the ſenate, and the commonalty. But Schloetzer, who appeals to this in his hiſtorical inquiries, has clearly expreſſed himſelf on its true meaning, by ſaying, that here are three imperial eſtates in a manner ſpecified by name †; and that of the clergy

* This tranſaction is here noticed merely for the ſake of an apparently neceſſary remark; it not being exactly to the purpoſe, as there were heirs to the throne.

† If there had then been no heir to the throne, and conſequently an election was neceſſary, then the queſtion would have really been, to whom does the care of it belong? There were no eſtates of the empire; nor even an officer, who could law-

clergy no mention is made*. Juſt as little had the council full powers, or any right to preſcribe a mode or conditions of election in regard to the empreſs Anna, eſpecially as ſhe was among the heirs to the throne. Very different was the caſe, when the prince Vaſſilli Zuiſkoi, who was regarded as an entire ſtranger, was choſen tzar, on

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fully take upon him to call an aſſembly. In lieu of the former boyars, here were now a ſenate, a council, a cabinet, and a privy-council. But which of theſe had ever any commiſſion to declare to the people the vacancy of the throne, or to inſtitute an election to fill it? Some meaſures are only to be juſtified or excuſed by neceſſity and the ſilence of the laws. But how came the commonalty to be brought on the carpet? We know that antiently the ſoldiers at Rome and at Conſtantinople, took upon them, either alone or in conjunction with the clergy, to diſpoſe of the crown. — Here the conſtitution of the empire, for preventing all calamitous accidents, ſeems to want a ſalutary regulation. Whoever ſhall provide it, and ſecure it in perpetuity, will be one of the greateſt benefactors to the empire it ever had. Perhaps it would have had a place in the expected new code of laws.

* Probably becauſe they are comprehended in the aggregate term nation, or becauſe they ſeemed to have loſt their former great influence; or becauſe ſome german miniſters, then in high favour, did not happen to think of them. The empreſs Elizabeth named them expreſsly in her firſt manifeſto, where we find, that all the faithful ſubjects of the ſpiritual and temporal orders, particularly the regiments of life-guards, had unanimouſly beſought her graciouſly to accept of the throne of her fathers, to which ſhe had the neareſt right by birth. — That by the guards, or by ſome of that corps, many things have been formerly brought about, is univerſally known.

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the extinction of the reigning houſe: whereby the nation re-entered into its original rights; and, if it had thought fit, might have propoſed to him certain conditions. Accordingly, Tatiſchtſchef aſſerts, that the capitulation, which, not the people, but a company of ſome grandees, by their uſurped authority, preſcribed to him, was of great injury to the empire.

We find alſo that ſovereigns, during their life-time have choſen and appointed the ſucceſſor. So tzar Feodor Ivanovitch bequeathed the throne in 1598 to his kinſman Feodor Nikititch Romanof; and tzar Feodor Alexévitch on his death-bed appointed his youngeſt brother Peter, afterwards emperor, his ſole heir *. The ſame thing has ſeveral times happened in the eighteenth century, by teſtaments, decrees, ceſſions, and the like. The right or full power to ſuch a meaſure, ſeems to require no proof; as, 1. the ſovereigns of Ruſſia reign with unlimited authority; but, moreover, 2. neither records nor any other memorials can be produced, whereby the people reſerved to themſelves

* Though both nominations partly failed of accompliſhment, yet it was not becauſe they were thought invalid, but from the occurrence of ſome events which prevented their being put in execution; as afterwards the empreſs Elizabeth annulled the nomination of prince Ivan. But ſuch nominations in earlier times, as that of tzar Ivan Vaſſillievitch (to which Peter I. appeals in his regulation of the ſucceſſion, but of which the records are unknown) were acknowledged to be of undoubted validity.

an influence, or fixed the ſucceſſion to the reigning family*: and, 3. they never contradicted ſuch nomination, but approved it by their ſilence, and of courſe acknowledged the full right of the monarch: which arguments are ſtrengthened and increaſed, on conſidering, 4. that the people at the very beginning made their throne hereditary, and afterwards renewed and confirmed this mode of ſucceſſion, as confeſſedly advantageous, principally in the view of avoiding all the confuſions that would enſue on every interregnum, or in their own proceedings at elections; and thereby ſolemnly renounced its concern in the ſucceſſion, ſo long as the reigning houſe is in being; leaving it, in ſo far as it compriſed the original right of election, to their ſovereign and his unlimited will. That this antient right of the ſovereign to name his ſucceſſor, exerciſed in former times, and acknowledged by the nation, and ſo frequently neceſſary to the well-being of the empire, may be exerted, follows accordingly from the eſſential conſtitution of the empire, which bears the form of a fundamental law. Therefore it required no written ordinance to make it valid. Peter the Great, however, iſſued ſuch an ordi-

* Indeed it was required of the empreſs Anne, previous to her acceſſion, that ſhe ſhould not appoint a ſucceſſor without the concurrence of the ſenate: though this was no demand of the nation, but merely of a college, and was immediately annulled at the requeſt of a part of the nobility.

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nance, dated the 5th of February 1722, but merely on account of a well-known event, in order to give his will and his views the ſtamp of a greater ſolemnity by a written law, and to prevent any ill conſequences that might enſue upon ſome diſſatisfactions that had been expreſſed. Hereupon aroſe the queſtions, how this ordinance was to be called *; whether it ſhould be deemed a fundamental law of the empire †, or whether at leaſt it has a general obligatory and perpetual energy, as it was one while not obſerved ‡, and after-

* Gebauer in the plan of his hiſtory calls it a perpetual law of the empire. It was manifeſtly, on its firſt appearance, a law of the empire; but the epithet perpetual was given it by the author without due conſideration. He muſt have known nothing of the ſubſequent repeal of it.

† On this ſubject, a learned controverſy aroſe between Buſching and Schlœtzer. The former affirms, even in the laſt edition of his Geography, that ordinance to be a fundamental law of the empire, and even the only one in writing; whereas Schlœtzer proves in his hiſtorical enquiries, that it can by no means be regarded as ſuch, for the veriеſt deſpot cannot reign or command after his death. But here the fallacy lies ſolely in the expreſſion: for every monarch reigns after his death, whenever he confers a privilege or a patent of nobility on a man and his heirs for ever. And does not every man that leaves a will preſide over his affairs after his death?

‡ Not to mention other occurrences of a like nature, it is evident that the empreſs Elizabeth, who endeavoured to preſerve and follow all the regulations of her father with a conſcientious exactitude, yet on her acceſſion to the throne, ſo far from holding the ordinance to be a fundamental law of the empire, ſhe denied its validity. For, though ſhe regarded the ac-

afterwards almoſt totally repealed; though it is not to be denied that the empreſs Anna expreſsly appealed to it*. It is mere evaſion to ſay that the ordinance of Peter I. is a fundamental law of the empire, not for the ſovereign, but for the ſubjects in regard to their oaths †; as they are at any rate bound to obedience ‡. Every ſucceſſor of Peter I. is doubtleſs at liberty to repeal this ordinance, or to depart from it, ſince his power is

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acceſſion of Anne as contrary to law, yet ſhe could not deny that ſhe was really empreſs; and therefore by the father's pretended fundamental law of the empire, had the right of naming a ſucceſſor. But, as ſhe expreſsly annulled this nomination, reſting on the ordinance of Peter I. ſhe thereby publicly declared what binding force ſhe attributed to that ordinance. Indeed ſhe might have derived her right to the throne partly from the teſtament of her mother Catharine I. but this was not entirely executed when Elizabeth took upon her the government of the empire; and therefore no mention is made of it in her manifeſto.

* This ſhe did becauſe that ordinance favoured her views, to which ſhe thought to give more ſolemnity and force from a written law. At leaſt ſuch were the expectations of the cabinet miniſter.

† Peter I. cauſed his ordinance of ſucceſſion to be acknowledged on oath by all his ſubjects, which otherwiſe uſed to be done only by homages; and added ſevere threats to it, which, as Schlœtzer obſerves, is not the part of a fundamental law: however, this, even in republics, admits of an exception.

‡ It would have been a ridiculous and aukward circumſtance if a ſubject had thought fit to declare the acceſſion of the empreſs Elizabeth illegal by reaſon of the pretended fundamental law of Peter I.

as unlimited as that of the monarch by whom it was framed. So every one of them can exerciſe in his own perſon the right of nominating a ſucceſſor; but the rights connected with the unlimited ſovereignty, and flowing from the conſtitution, to which the nomination of a ſucceſſor, for the above-mentioned reaſons may be added, adhere to the throne; which is in ſome meaſure ſeen by the conduct of Peter II.

In the nomination of a ſucceſſor, by the unlimited power of the ſovereign, it ſeems to depend on him, whether he will appoint to the throne one of his ſons or daughters, or whom he pleaſes of the members of the reigning family. But the matter immediately aſſumes another aſpect, on putting the queſtion: whether, paſſing by all the princes and princeſſes of the reigning houſe, the nomination may fall on a perfect ſtranger? The ordinance of Peter the great, and the commentary upon it, ſoon after publiſhed by authority, contain an anſwer to this queſtion in the affirmative. But then the firſt and univerſally acknowledged fundamental law, the inheritance of the throne in the reigning houſe, (whence the very right of appointing a ſucceſſor is partly to be derived,) ſeems to fall to the ground *; not to mention the

* It might therefore be aſked: whether the ſtranger, on the ſaid ſuppoſition, could ever receive a well-founded right to the ſucceſſion by ſuch an appointment; and, whether the power of the ſovereign, when his family is extinct, extends to ſtrangers?

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lamentable condition into which ſuch a ſtep might ſoon involve the empire. Laſtly, the queſtion: whether the ſovereign may preſcribe to the ſucceſſor appointed by him certain limitations and rules of government? would not eaſily be anſwered. At leaſt they ſhould ſeem to be no otherwiſe binding than in virtue of a voluntary and ſolemn promiſe; as the ſucceſſor, as ſoon as he has aſcended the throne, fills it with the ſame unlimited ſway as his predeceſſor.

On a vacancy in the throne, the heir* takes poſſeſſion of it, as in other countries, without needing any invitation, acts of homage, or the like. However, the oath of allegiance is uſually taken in all cities and towns, where an officer is appointed to adminiſter it†. It is ſworn by every claſs of ſubjects‡. The ſovereign may diſpenſe with it; as the ſubjects, without that ceremony, are bound to fidelity and obedience: however, as a venerable rite, it is generally obſerved; though in revolutions it has been neglected, as examples in modern times have ſhewn. The coronation

* Whether by birthright; or, where that is not pretended, in virtue of nomination; as the ſure and legitimate ways to the throne.

† In the oath of fealty mention is ſometimes made of the heir apparent.

‡ It is not uſual to adminiſter it to vaſſals, at leaſt not always or univerſally; they being regarded as people who have no will of their own, but are ſubject to that of their lord.

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ſolemnity too has for many centuries been cuſtomary in Ruſſia, and is ſtill preſerved alſo as a venerable uſage*: conſidered in itſelf perhaps it might not be neceſſary, as the ſovereign previous to it exerciſes the whole of his authority; therefore it has frequently been poſtponed for a long time; and, indeed, the emperor Peter III. was not crowned at all, nor were any preparations made for that purpoſe during his ſhort reign.

Since the introduction of chriſtianity into Ruſſia, the ſovereigns have always profeſſed themſelves of the orthodox greek church; therefore the perſons appointed to the throne, or coming into the imperial family, previouſly adopt that faith, if they were before of any other confeſſion. Some affirm this antient cuſtom to be a fundamental law of the empire; at leaſt we may well imagine that the majority of the principal nation, who have always ſhewn a ſtrong attachment to their church, ſhould be of this opinion.

It may juſt be remarked, by the way, that according to the manner of ſpeaking here in uſe, inſtead of the ſovereign, they ſay, the crown: for example; that is the buſineſs of the crown; an order is come from the crown, &c.

* On this occaſion the ſovereign is anointed with holy oil, and puts the crown on himſelf; as, among other teſtimonies, may be ſeen by the manifeſto of the late empreſs, bearing date July 7, 1762.

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SECTION II

The title of the Sovereign.

FORMERLY the ſovereign was always called Great Prince, in ruſs Velikie Kniæs, which, according to its original interpretation and import, muſt be tranſlated as above. If, as we are aſſured by ſome ruſſian annaliſts, the territory of Novgorod, as well as that of Kief, were great principalities ſo early as the ninth century, then the origin of this title is apparent*. Yet this interpretation may alſo lead us to ſuppoſe it meant to diſtinguiſh the ſovereign from all the other princes, eſpecially the reigning ones, of which there have always been ſeveral, as far back as authentic hiſtory reaches†. But all the ruſſian principalities were united

* But here it may be aſked, whether perhaps they might not be grand principalities, becauſe their governors were originally called grand princes. And then the matter would not be at all the more elucidated. Of the firſt riſe of this title I do not recollect to have read any ſatisfactory account.

† They were of two ſeveral kinds. Some poſſeſſed ſeparate and independent principalities or great duchies; of which kind were particularly Novgorod, Kief, and afterwards Vladimir, &c.; others had a principality dependent on the ruſſian government allotted them merely for their ſupport. It ſeems not poſſible now to aſcertain what rights the latter enjoyed, and to what

united in one monarchy, under one ſole regent, upwards of three hundred and twenty-ſix years ſince. Ivan Vaſſillievitch, as it is commonly aſſerted, declared himſelf tzar in the year 1547; yet in the hiſtory of this empire we find that title expreſsly given to its ſovereigns long *before, whether they actually bore it†, or whether the old annaliſts uſed it only to ſignify a monarchical dignity without election, or that later hiſtorians have arbitrarily employed it without ſufficient

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what extent they with their principalities belonged to the body politic. All we pretend to know is, that Vladimir, who began to reign in 981, and is frequently called the ſaint, aſſigned a principality to each of his ſons for his maintenance, thus making them ſeparate princes, but with this expreſs condition, that they ſhould all be under the ſupremacy of him and his ſucceſſors.

* So it is ſaid by Lomonoſof. Vladimir the ſaint, who died in 1015, had aſſumed the title of tzar upon his marriage with a greek princeſs. The ſame author affirms, that not only Vladimir Vſevolodovitch Monomachus, who began to reign in 1114, was crowned tzar of all Ruſſia; but alſo that Vaſſilli Ivanovitch, who died in 1535, ſtyled himſelf in the latter years of his reign, tzar and autocrator of all Ruſſia.

† If they were actually called tzars (which, before we can admit, ought to be more clearly ſhewn), then it is evident that this title was not firſt introduced into Ruſſia in 1547; but then it is inexplicable why it was not borne by all great princes: it might be that the horde which was moſt prevalent at the time prevented or refuſed it.

authority *. In the ruſſian bible it ſignifies a king †; yet the old authors uſe it likewiſe when they

* But this can only be determined by old records. However, the accurate appropriation of it to the above-mentioned Vaſſilli Ivanovitch ſeems to vouch for the veracity of Lomonoſof in delivering the tzar's title, that he does not give it arbitrarily or negligently, but as he found it in the annaliſts. — In ſhort, as the whole of the preſent inquiry more properly belongs to the departments of hiſtory and antiquities than to this place, ſo there is no need to dwell any longer upon it.

† Thus the derivative tzarſtvo, kingdom, which is even extended to the kingdoms of nature, the animal kingdom, the vegetable kingdom, &c. At preſent in the ruſſian tongue a king is called korol, and the derivative kingdom, korolevſtvo. — That it is only the Ruſſians, and not the other ſlavonian nations, that denote a ſovereign by the word tzar, we learn from the learned M. Anton. And this leads to the inquiry whence the word is taken. We can hardly imagine it to be formed by an abbreviation of the word cæſar, which indeed they pronounce, in common with the Germans, tſeſar. But we will juſt notice a ſuggeſtion that now offers. In the ruſſian hiſtories frequent mention is made of tartarian and ſiberian tzars and tzarevitches, i. e. ſons of tzars. Thus, among others, Ritchkof, in his hiſtory of Kazan, ſpeaks of the tzar of the golden horde, the tzar of the Krim, the tzar of Kazan, which bears an obvious ſignification. This title has not been careleſsly transferred into the ruſſian hiſtories and appropriated to its monarchs, for they have always had it ſince the conqueſt of thoſe countries, and, therefore, in the empreſs's title ſhe was called "tzarina of Kazan; tzarina of Siberia," &c. We may conſequently with great propriety ſuppoſe, that the ruſſian nation, finding theſe tzars at the head of the neigh-

they ſpeak of the emperors of Greece*. The largeneſs of the territory, to which no kingdom is comparable, but which even conſiſts of ſeveral kingdoms, long ago obtained for it the name of an empire. Peter I. thought proper to aſſume the denomination of emperor, in the year 1721, at the inſtance of the chief of his ſubjects †; and the imperial title has been borne ever ſince by the ſovereigns of Ruſſia. For whom, in the maſculine gender the word imperator ‡ was adopted, but an empreſs is ſtyled imperatritza. At firſt ſome trifling difficulties were raiſed by two foreign

neighbouring tribes, borrowed the title from them, and adopted it in the ruſſian language, to which it is perfectly foreign. However, this is only ſurmiſe, it may have come into uſe by ſome other way.

* Therefore we are not to be ſurpriſed, that the tranſlators at Moſco conſtantly tranſlate the word tzar by that of emperor. Yet the word keſar was adopted into the ruſſian tongue to ſignify a roman emperor, (probably from the greek bible, which came into Ruſſia with the chriſtian religion,) which was afterwards changed for tzeſar, and at laſt for imperator.

† When we find in ſome authors, that Peter I. adopted the title of emperor, which was given him by his ſubjects, it muſt be ſaid that they expreſs themſelves too indefinitely, and as if it were done by a general reſolution of the nation. The fact is, that ſome of the principal perſons (among whom are chiefly meant the public colleges and boards) propoſed it to him.

‡ The emperor of Germany is likewiſe ſo called at court and in the public acts, but the common people denote him by Rymſki tzar, the roman tzar.

courts about acknowledging this title; but they were ſoon removed*. All potentates agree in giving the imperial title to the ſovereign of Ruſſia.

The abridged title, uſual in ukaſes, ſentences, commands, petitions, &c. is, emperor and autocrator†, or, empreſs and autocratrix, of all Ruſſia, or of all the Ruſſias. The term autocrator denotes the ſovereign and unlimited authority; the addition, of all Ruſſia, or of all the Ruſſias, relates to the union of all the formerly diſtinct principalities into a monarchy under one ſole ruler‡.

The

* The french court at firſt would not directly acknowledge the ſovereign of Ruſſia as emperor, but only as ruſſian emperor. This was certainly curious; the german emperor is ſtill emperor, and ſo the ruſſian.

† It is not poſſible, I think, to put this word into engliſh, but by a periphraſis. Self-ruler, or ſole-ruler, do not come up to it. Perhaps uncontrollable-ruler is neareſt the mark. — In the ruſſian it is: Samoderjetz Vſeroſſiiſkiyi, or, of an empreſs: Samoderjitza Vſeroſſiiſkaia. The addition, as properly an adjective, is, by the two above expreſſions, "of all Ruſſia," or, "of all the Ruſſias," not exactly rendered: the engliſh language having no term for it. Every attempt to give it a more juſt or literal tranſlation, would have idiom, gender, or ſyntax, or grammar againſt it, and at laſt would be of little conſequence. Samoderjetz is compounded of *ſam*, ſelf, and derjetz. If the latter be derived from *derju*, I hold, then ſamoderjetz is a ſelf-holder. And thus it is ſometimes tranſlated, e. g. in the ruſſian articles of war, for the uſe of ſuch foreigners as are in the ſervice.

‡ They who imagine, ſays M. Hupel, the ſeveral parts of Ruſſia, now called by different names, viz. Great Ruſſia, Little Ruſſia,

The full title borne by the empreſs runs as follows: Empreſs and autocratrix of all the Ruſſias, of Moſco, Kief, Vladimir, Novgorod, tzarina of Kazan, tzarina of Aſtrakhan, tzarina of Siberia, tzarina of the Tauridan Cherſoneſe, lady of Pſcove, and grand ducheſs of Smolenſk, princeſs of Eſthonia, Livonia, Karelia*, Tver, Yugoria†, Permia, Viætka, Bolgaria, and other countries: lady and grand princeſs of Novgorod of the lower country‡, of Tchernigof, Riæſan, Polotſk, Roſtof, Yaroſlavl, Bielozero, Udoria§, ‖ Obdoria,

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Ruſſia, and White Ruſſia, to be here meant, have the authority of hiſtory againſt them. For, long before Little Ruſſia, for inſtance, ſubmitted to the ruſſian monarchs, they already bore the title of Samoderjetz of all the Ruſſias.

* By Karelia is meant the preſent government of Vyborg, which is often called Finland.

† This is a part of the government of Archangel, namely the diſtrict of Puſtozero, and about the mouth of the Petſhora. Yugoria is an obſolete country-appellative, of which ſeveral appear in the imperial title, preſerved from antient times: they generally denote only ſmall tracts of country.

‡ This means Niſhnei-Novgorod.

§ Likewiſe an obſolete name, formerly borne by the diſtrict about the river Meſen, eſpecially at its entrance.

‖ By this obſolete name, which took its origin from the river Oby, is meant the diſtrict of Bereſof, in the government of Tobolſk. Tzar Vaſſilli Ivanovitch was the firſt that put Obdoria in his title.

Kondia*, Vitepſk, Mſtiſlavl, commandreſs of the whole northern region, and lady of the country of Iveria†; of the kartalinian and gruſinian tzars,

* It denotes the region of the river Konda, which flows into the Irtiſh.

† About this country very little information is to be had. Perhaps we are to look for it in the diſtrict of the Valdai, where the old famous iverian monaſtery ſtood. However the reader may not be diſpleaſed to ſee three ſeveral anſwers to letters of enquiry on this ſubject. The firſt (which alſo coincides with the opinion of a ſenator who gave it to Mr. Hupel) runs thus: "By the Iveria from which the late empreſs ſtyled herſelf lady of the country of Iveria, or more properly according to the ruſſian, the iverian country (1), is undoubtedly meant the antient Iberia. But it appears that at preſent no country is any longer called Iberia, nor any nation the iberian. Buſching, who always proceeds warily in his accounts, ſays Georgia conſiſts of the antient countries Iberia and Colchis. — The diviſion of the iberian monarchy into three chief parts ſtill continues; theſe are, Imeretia, Kargvelia, (with the Ruſſians Kartalinia,) and Kakhetia. — But generally by ſuch adjectives we are not always to underſtand a particular, and ſtill leſs a whole country, as we ſee, for inſtance, in Kondiiſkii. There are indeed two voloſts (2), which are, or were, called the great and the little Konda: but long ere theſe came under the ruſſian ſovereignty, Kondiiſkii or Kondinſkii was a part of the tzarian title, and conſequently meant no more than that the tzarian territory extended to the river Konda, or to thoſe two voloſts. Thus count Romantzof bears the ſurname Zadunaiſkii, though no country is called Zadunaia." On this mode of deduction a perſon of diſtinction wrote in his letter the following remarks:

(1) Iverſkiya zemli. (2) Diſtricts.

tzars, and of the kabardinian country, of the Tſcherkaſſian and mountain-princes, and of others, hereditary lady and ſovereign.

In the charter which the late empreſs granted to the whole body of nobility, ſhe adds the following declaration after her title: " It is " known to all people, that this title of our ſole " dominion is no imaginary empire, or not in " ſubjection to us, nor containing foreign prin- " cipalities, provinces, towns, and countries, but " marks our wide-extended and numerous poſ- " ſeſſions by the ſhorteſt terms *."

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marks: " The foregoing opinion would have ſome probabi- " lity, if it were previouſly ſhewn that the antient Colchis, " or the three georgian or gruſinian provinces on mount Cau- " caſus, formerly compoſed a monarchy under the name of " Iberia. At leaſt this ſtyle in the tzarian title was not adopted " earlier than the time when the princes of theſe countries " came into ſome connection with Ruſſia, which was not, and " then a very inſignificant one, till the reign of Ivan Vaſſillie- " vitch II. whereas it is certain that the ſaid three provinces at " that time bore the ſame appellation they do at preſent." Laſtly, a third writes: " There is ſtill an Iberia, through " which the river Hippus flows, coming from the caucaſean " mountains: but whether this be the Iberia in the imperial " title, I conceive to want farther examination."

* There are really many countries and provinces ſubject to the ruſſian ſceptre which are not named in the imperial title; for inſtance, the country of the Kirghiſes, and the lately naturalized Tſhuktſhi; not to mention the iſlands in the Eaſtern ocean, which have never belonged to Siberia.

It is farther to be remarked, that in former ukaſes and manifeſtos we always find: "By the "grace of God, we Catharine the ſecond," &c.: but in the charters aforeſaid it is: "By the boun- "tiful grace of God, we Catharine the ſecond, "&c." Laſtly, majeſty in the ruſſian is expreſſed by velitcheſtvo, which indeed implies majeſty, but is originally a deſignation of greatneſs, being evidently derived from veliki, great.

SECTION III.

The power, authority, and prerogatives of the Sovereign.

THESE objects are not only of the greateſt importance, but form perhaps the moſt difficult problems of the ruſſian conſtitution*; and therefore demand all poſſible care in the diſcrimination.

It is notorious, and the empreſs declares it in her inſtructions for the code-commiſſioners,

* Even miniſters themſelves, on being interrogated on this ſubject, have confeſſed that it would coſt them ſome trouble to deliver a direct and ſatisfactory ſolution of them. This is mentioned merely leſt the reader ſhould be afraid of being wearied with a long and tedious diſquiſition, or expect a complete ſatisfactory analyſis of a matter, on which he muſt content himſelf only with fragments. And as we know of no book that could here ſerve as a guide, it is hoped he will pardon any miſtake he may detect.

ſect,

ſect. ix. and x. that the monarch of Ruſſia is unlimited, or has an unlimited authority. But we are not hence to infer, that the people at large, and its ſeveral claſſes have not certain rights either derived from immemorial cuſtom or gradually introduced*.

From the ruſſian hiſtorians, particularly thoſe who diſcover a ſcrutinizing view, it appears that this unlimited authority has ever belonged to the ſovereigns of Ruſſia, and that the empire has always proſpered with it; whereas it has regularly felt a conſiderable detriment as often as ſome bold and enterpriſing party has preſumed to bring it within bounds. According to Tatiſchtſhef it was Rurik that firſt aſſumed unlimited authority, and that it continued with his ſucceſſors till Mſtiſlaf the great; at which period the ſeparate princes began to grow ſo powerful, and the clergy exacted ſuch great veneration, that the welfare of the empire was evidently declining. But Ivan the Great regained the former authority and power, and Ivan the Terrible, or the ſecond, confirmed it, and it remained to the ſovereigns that followed till the time of the falſe Demetriuſes; when

* Several foreigners, and particularly travellers, from haſte and ignorance have omitted to take theſe into their accounts; and thus have given riſe to many wrong notions concerning the government of this country: neither have ſome of them been ſparing of the terms deſpotiſm and ſlavery, which are by no means applicable to it.

ſome of the boyars found opportunity to uſurp a power that brought great diſtreſs on the empire. Tzar Alexey Mikhailovitch, with all his abilities, found it impoſſible to recover it entirely; prevented at firſt by the ambition of Nikon, and after the depoſition of that patriarch, by a lingering diſeaſe, that at laſt put an end to his life. It was reſerved for Peter the Great to retrieve the long loſt unlimited authority *. And, though upon the demiſe of Peter II. the privy council ſtretched its power ſo far as to propoſe to the empreſs Anna, previouſly to her acceſſion, the ſubſcription to a ſet of articles by which her authority was circumſcribed †, yet the nobility, on being informed of the plan, defeated it immediately by preſenting a petition, wherein they beſought her to reject the propoſal as highly indecent, and to uſe the fulneſs of power that was her due, to the benefit and glory of herſelf and the empire ‡. This

* It might nearly be affirmed that he enlarged it; as, among other ways, inſtead of the lordly domineering patriarch, idolized by the people, he inſtituted a ſpiritual college devoted to himſelf, the ſynod; and thus acquired a ſpiritual in addition to his temporal power.

† It is ſaid, that the generalfeldtmarechal count Munich, as ſoon as he heard of the deſign of the council, immediately diſpatched a courier, by a particular road, to Mittau, begging her to ſubſcribe to the whole of it without heſitation, and afterwards to act as ſhe pleaſed.

‡ Tatiſchtſhef mentions that at firſt upwards of 70 perſons, and then 360 others, of the principal nobility, preſented this petition.

This ſhe did: and it has remained with the crown unaltered to the preſent day.

This unlimited power, as the empreſs herſelf declares in her Inſtruction, ſect. xiii. and xix. by no means conſiſts in the privation of the natural liberty of the ſubjects, but in this, that the inferior powers are ſubordinate to the ſovereign and dependent upon it. Accordingly, in the ruſſian empire there is nothing that can oppoſe itſelf to the emiſſion of an imperial decree: there being neither diet, nor national aſſembly, nor eſtates of the empire, nor parliament, nor college, nor any thing of a like nature, authoriſed in the name of the people, or merely of themſelves, to judge of the conduct of the ſovereign, or his prime miniſter, acting under his orders, and in anywiſe to try his ukaſes before they are enforced, or in any manner to take part in the legiſlative and other prerogatives of majeſty. It is true, the directing ſenate, as the ſupreme court of the empire, is inveſted with a peculiar authority; yet it is not the repreſentative* of the people, but the ſupreme

petition. — They were apprehenſive that a power divided between the throne and a council or ſenate, might have a tendency to bring back the former confuſions.

* Except perhaps in caſes where it is held proper to return thanks for marks of favour beſtowed upon the empire, or to carry up a general felicitation. Though this ſeems to be more in their own corporate than in any ſort of repreſentative capacity.

court

court of judicature *, and executor of the decrees ſent to it. No more can a council or cabinet control the will of the ſovereign; ſince either, as well as the ſenate, exiſts only through him, and is dependant upon him. The proceeding of the council at the acceſſion of the empreſs Anna, about ſetting limits to the imperial power, and appropriating a part of it to itſelf, with the ſenate, which had approved of the whole plan, was nothing but uſurpation, and therefore is not to the purpoſe. Peter the firſt, gave expreſs permiſſion, as well to the ſenate as to other colleges of the empire, on receiving an ukaſe apparently detrimental; that is, if they conceived the ſubject of it had not been properly repreſented to the monarch, to defer the enforcement of it, and to ſhew their objections in a remonſtrance †; at the

* It is underſtood of itſelf that the empreſs can reform its judgments of her own accord, or in her cabinet, though it is not often done.

† This alone is ſufficient to refute the opinion that immenoi ukaſes, i. e. ukaſes ſigned by the ſovereign's own hand, are ſo irreverſible that even no remonſtrance can be brought againſt them. In caſes of great emergency even private individuals have preſented them. As an inſtance we may mention the princeſs Kantemir, who received a determination of the cabinet in regard to the negligence of her ſpouſe, which granted her but little, and aſſigned almoſt all to the other heirs. She delivered a petition to the empreſs Anna, in which ſhe ſaid, ſhe appealed from a monarch not ſufficiently informed of the matter, to one better acquainted with it. The empreſs, ſomewhat nettled, ordered a commiſſion to re-examine the caſe; and the princeſs gained her ſuit.

ſame

ſame time adding, that if that ukaſe were repeated they ſhould conform to it without farther delay. The late empreſs renewed this permiſſion, by expreſsly declaring in her inſtruction to the commiſſioners for framing a code of laws, ſect. xxiv. "The courts of juſtice are carefully to examine "the laws they receive from the monarch, and "have the right to make repreſentations, in caſe "they find any thing in them that runs counter "to the law-book." And, in ſect. xxvii. it is added; that "they may and ſhould make ſuch "repreſentations*." Agreeably to this, it is ſaid, in the ordinance for the adminiſtration of the government, ſect. ci. "On important and "extraordinary occaſions, or on the receipt of "new and general laws, the imperial viceroy "may call together the penal, civil, and crown "courts, to take the matter into their common "conſideration conjointly with the perſons in the "adminiſtration of that government. If among "the new general laws, a law is found any way "improper, it is allowable for the ſaid aſſembly "to make a unanimous repreſentation to the ſe-

* It needs not to be remarked, that ſuch remonſtrances can never degenerate into oppoſition, but that a reiterated decree muſt be carried into effect. We may obſerve, by the way, that here a right is expreſsly granted to the courts of judicature: therefore the reader not ſufficiently acquainted with the true ſtate of the caſe, will ceaſe to wonder at mention being made of certain rights of the people.

nate

" nate upon it*. But if the ordinance be con-
" firmed in a ſuperior place, it behoves them to
" pay entire obedience to it without contradic-
" tion." Of the influence formerly acquired by the boyars and the heads of the clergy, notice has already been taken: whenever it exceeded the bounds of a ſubordinate power, it was pure uſurpation; only the monarch, who elected them at his pleaſure, was at liberty to uſe their advice, and when he ſaw good to delegate to them a part of his authority, as is ſometimes done to a college, a miniſter †, &c. Therefore the empreſs ſays, in her Inſtruction, ſect. xx. that the ſovereign alone communicates power, and this flows through the courts of juſtice.

In virtue of his unlimited power, the ſovereign, without being ſubject to any account or control whatever ‡, can give new laws whenever he thinks

* A wiſe and ſalutary regulation: for an imperial college may miſtake in the framing of a decree, or may improperly repreſent the ſtate of the caſe, through negligence or deſign. In ſuch a large empire it might happen that a decree was iſſued contrary to the intention of the ſovereign, a ukaſe be brought out by ſtealth, or wrongly interpreted, &c.

† Thus the empreſs Anna granted to count Munich, particularly when he was at a diſtance from the army, an extenſive authority till then not cuſtomary, which gave great umbrage to ſeveral generals and ſtaff-officers, and of the exerciſe of which all ſorts of anecdotes are told.

‡ Accordingly the empreſs in her Inſtruction, &c. confines the legiſlation entirely to him.

proper,

proper, or alter thoſe in being according to the exigences of the empire; can make war and peace*, raiſe taxes, levy recruits, grant privileges and exemptions, confer titles and † dignities, have or aboliſh monopolies, ſettle imperial ‡ dues, or abrogate them, grant away or ſell domains at pleaſure §, or increaſe them by purchaſe, conqueſt, negotiation ‖, &c.

The moſt unlimited ruler, even the greateſt deſpot, if not miſled by flatterers or the influence of unruly paſſions, will feel a counterpoiſe within his breaſt reſtraining him from manifeſt oppreſſions, violences, and other noxious θ meaſures:

* It is cuſtomary at preſent to ſtate the motives in the proclamation.

† Such as creating princes, counts, barons; in ſhort, raiſing perſons to the nobleſſe.

‡ So the late empreſs relinquiſhed the imperialia exacted of the mine-works by Peter the great.

§ Thus in the whole courſe of the preſent century all the ruſſian emperors and empreſſes have made grants of numberleſs crown-eſtates.

‖ Examples of the actual and unmoleſted exerciſe of all theſe prerogatives, appear throughout the ruſſian hiſtory, eſpecially the modern.

θ To which may be added, his own intereſt, which muſt be intimately connected with that of the country; the internal ſenſe or conſcience; a laudable ambition and the deſire of leaving a good name behind him to poſterity; an honeſt pleaſure in the approbation of the people; the dread of diſcontents or loud murmurs, invective ſpeeches among the ſubjects, or even rebellions, &c. — As an excellent illuſtration of this, we may refer to the hint in the Inſtruction, &c. ſect. xcii. concerning the ſpirit by which the civil government ought to be actuated.

yet

yet it is notorious that in deſpotic governments, the honour, the property, and the life of the ſubject are dependent on the humour of the prince. Quite different is the caſe in the ruſſian empire: its various tribes and claſſes have their peculiar rights, may enjoy them undiſturbed, and appeal to them when occaſion requires; reputation, property, and life, except in criminal caſes, are inviolable, which the empreſs, in her Inſtruction, ſect. cxiv. expreſsly eſtabliſhes as a fundamental principle of the ruſſian form of government: no man is condemned unheard, but every one, even a traitor or a rebel, enjoys the benefit of defence; the laws are enforced, and all cauſes muſt be determined by them. Of equal validity are cuſtoms and uſages*; all contracts are fulfilled with the moſt punctilious exactitude†; private perſons defend

* Therefore the empreſs ſays in her Inſtruction, ſect. lix. "Laws are ordinances of the legiſlator. But cuſtoms and "uſages are traditions of the whole nation."

† It muſt however be remarked, that this is particularly applicable to the late empreſs. In the reign of Elizabeth, they were ſometimes broken; probably without her knowledge. Thus, for example, a man had to-day a grant of an eſtate belonging to the crown, for twelve years, by way of leaſe; and it would be taken from him in one year afterwards, without compenſation, and given away to another. But at preſent ſuch things are unheard of. Even when a perſon has the grant of an eſtate in fee, if there be a leaſe upon it, the terms of it are faithfully obſerved; on the other hand, of all contractors the exact fulfilment of their covenant is required, even when they can

defend their property, even againſt claims on the part of the crown, in courſe of law according to the ſtatutes*; when a man has ſuffered a ſuppoſed injury, he may make a repreſentation and expect relief†, &c.

In all countries, with the beſt conſtitution, an abuſe of power will ſometimes happen, when the ruler, or a violent miniſter, or a ſelfiſh and rapacious governor, or a venal judge, invades the rights of a province, of a town, of a particular claſs of people, or of private perſons. The ſame may occaſionally happen likewiſe in Ruſſia‡. But

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can prove that they ſuffer damage by it; it being reaſonably ſuppoſed, that the contractor, when he made the contract, had duly weighed the advantages and the diſadvantages: from the former he gives nothing back, therefore it is but equitable that he ſhould bear the latter.

* When a nobleman, whoſe eſtate borders on one belonging to the crown, has a diſpute concerning the bounds, it is decided by the ordinary judges, according to the laws in being. The crown has never required a partial reſpect, and it has no preference in legal deciſions: it might happen formerly that a governor or a judge had hopes of getting a reward for ſuch obliquity; but it never happens now.

† Inſtances are not wanting of ample compenſation being made by the ſucceſſor for acts of injuſtice committed in the former reign.

‡ During the reign of the empreſs Elizabeth, people, without being brought to a hearing, were ſent off, and diſappeared. It is thought that in every year of her reign a thouſand perſons were the ſad victims of this practice. She reigned twenty years.

thence to draw a general or unfavourable conclusion, would be to judge very inconſiderately: according to law, or properly according to the conſtitution, ſuch diſorders, and eſpecially acts of violence, cannot happen.

In many countries the people have received their privileges by charter from their princes *. So in Ruſſia are ſeveral inſtances of a like nature. In regard to the unlimited power of the ſovereign, which always deſcends entire to the ſucceſſor, the laſting validity of them ſeems to require ſome notice. When the ſovereign grants a charter, it ſhould appear as if the ſucceſſor was limited by it; and in general that privileges conferred on the ſubjects were not perfectly compatible with unlimited power. But, by this mode of inference no ſovereign ſtate could enter into treaties of peace or of commerce with others; as in them likewiſe the ſucceſſor is bound to fulfil the † conditions. Herein, however, the greatneſs of the ſovereign is diſplayed in its full ſplendor, inaſmuch as he can grant privileges of permanent validity; he would himſelf limit his power, were he to declare thoſe granted by his predeceſſors null and void; at the ſame time by ſo doing, he would deſtroy all ſecu-

* Whether they be granted freely and by peculiar agreement, or extorted from the prince, makes not much difference, at leaſt in their conſequences.

† That he ſometimes finds a pretext for departing from an alliance concluded in the former reign, we are taught by hiſtory both antient and modern.

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rity, the main pillar of the government. For this important reaſon the ſovereigns of Ruſſia have preſerved their unlimited power unimpaired, while they maintained and occaſionally enlarged not only the written privileges, but alſo thoſe reſting on antient uſage and tacit approbation alone. In proof of this, we may bring the Kozaks, the Baſhkirs, &c. reſpecting their excluſive right of property in the countries they inhabited; the provinces of Livonia and Eſthonia, which, ſince they fell to Ruſſia, in lieu of furniſhing recruits, pay a certain fine; the whole body of nobility, whoſe antient rights have of late received a conſiderable augmentation; the proprietors of mines, to whom Peter I. in their charter granted a complete allodial right, with the ſpecial aſſurance that it ſhould be held ſacred by all his ſucceſſors in the empire, which the late empreſs has farther increaſed by remitting the imperial dues; with many more inſtances of a ſimilar kind. — An imperial law in the general regulation proceeding from that emperor, for that reaſon makes it the duty of every tribunal and college, in framing their judgments, always to have regard to exiſting privileges, and to decide accordingly: and this happens perpetually; the ſenate has frequently interpoſed, when patentees have been willing to wave their privilege, by plainly declaring its diſapprobation of ſuch a proceeding, and inſiſting

on its being maintained *. But how, if reaſons of ſtate, and the welfare of the empire †, demand an alteration or a total abrogation of the privilege? Indeed it appears that no ſovereign could take that upon him without the conſent or a ſufficient indemnification of the privileged party, who ought to enjoy at leaſt the right of a contractor. Privileges, however, are not to be conſidered merely as contracts, but as laws, the place of which they undoubtedly ſupply. Theſe, when they degenerate and become hurtful, require a remedy, that, like pernicious abuſes, they may not be perpetuated. The ſovereign may find himſelf obliged to retrench or entirely to aboliſh a privilege granted by himſelf or his predeceſſors, on its appearing to be hurtful. This may be illuſtrated by ſome inſtances. The patriarchal dignity was for a long period of time interwoven with the political and eccleſiaſtical conſtitution of the empire; it had been ſanctioned and confirmed by

* Even ſlight diſadvantages have been diſregarded when juſtified by a privilege. Thus, in one of the provinces of the Baltic, a printing-office had a patent for the ſale of certain church and ſchool books. Though they were printed and diſpoſed of by thouſands, yet the patentee greatly enhanced their price. A bookſeller got permiſſion of him to print them, for the benefit of the poor boors, cheaper by about one half. But the ſenate would not allow of it, protected the printing-office in the exerciſe of its privilege; and declared that, in virtue of it, the office had a right to ſell its books at a dearer rate, than another might engage to do.

† Juſtly conſidered as the paramount law.

ſeveral

ſeveral monarchs, and may therefore be conſidered as a privilege granted to the nation, and eſpecially to the clergy: but, on its becoming dangerous and pernicious, it was aboliſhed by Peter the great. — The Ukraine had a privilege, in virtue whereof they choſe their own hetman. Hence frequently aroſe diſſenſions, rebellion, and inteſtine war. The monarch of Ruſſia ſaw himſelf neceſſitated to interpoſe in the election, and thus to ſet bounds to that privileged liberty. But, the hetman, as chieftain of a rude and turbulent people, joining ſometimes with the enemies of the empire, and thus growing dangerous to it, it was found neceſſary to prevent the election entirely, and to leave the place for a length of time unoccupied; till, at laſt, from the ſeveral complaints that were made againſt their former hetman, and for other weighty reaſons, the empreſs Catharine II. aboliſhed it quite. — So likewiſe the Zaporogians had a ſtated privilege of right over their territory and conſtitution, ariſing from antient cuſtom and tacit convention: in which, as long as it was poſſible, they were protected. Their licentious manners and turbulent ſpirit loudly called for reſtraint. They exclaimed againſt this ſalutary meaſure as an act of violence, and proceeded from one degree of inſolence to another: till at length no other alternative was left for the ſafety of the empire than to aboliſh their conſtitution, together with their pretended privilege. — On the whole it is

plain that the ruſſian ſovereigns have proceeded with great caution in the alterations that have been found neceſſary, not only in privileges, but even in uſurpations and preſcriptive uſages, when they have had but the leaſt ſemblance of juſtice on their ſide*; always expoſing their motives, and even referring the choice between the adoption of a new or the adhering to an old regulation, to the parties concerned†. If the ſovereign were obliged to leave all things to proceed upon the old ſyſtem, he would not be able to effect any good; but the alteration of a privilege is frequently a real benefit, as, among other ex-

* For inſtance in Livonia and Eſthonia; when, for reaſons of ſtate, the exportation of corn has been prohibited for a time, as was done in the ſeven years war by the empreſs Elizabeth. The ſame may be ſaid likewiſe of new impoſts: for, in the two dukedoms abovementioned, when the leaſes of land at the beginning of the eighteenth century were worth no more than from five hundred to a thouſand rubles, the taxes could not be ſo great as at preſent when the value is riſen to between three hundred and five thouſand rubles, and at times ſtill higher. Livonians and Eſthonians, when the converſation in companies at Peterſburg has turned upon the produce of eſtates, and rich Ruſſians have talked of four or five per cent, have bragged of gaining eleven per cent by theirs: which they may do — by methods at which humanity ſhudders.

† At the abolition of the Zaporogians it was left to their choice whether they would adopt a regular mode of life, or leave the empire. — The new political regulation was not forced upon the cities of Riga and Reval: it was left to the choice of the burghers; they found it more beneficial.

amples,

amples, the following will ſhew. According to the privilege granted to the miners by Peter the great, the private owners were obliged, as has been already mentioned, to pay certain tributes or tithes to the crown: but the late empreſs Catharine II. relinquiſhed theſe claims; and inſtead of that burden granted them an encouragement. This was an alteration of the greateſt advantage. — The kozaks of Little Ruſſia were obliged by their privileged conſtitution, not only to furniſh troops, but to maintain them at their own expence, by arbitrary and heavy contributions, partially levied by their chiefs. This was altered by her late majeſty: the ſtated number of troops now receive their regular maintenance from the crown, agreeably to the army eſtabliſhment; and thoſe who ſtay at home pay, to their great advantage, a very moderate annual rate. — The entails on eſtates in Livonia and Eſthonia were found to give riſe to many grievances; they were accordingly cut off, to the great joy of both dukedoms, by the late empreſs, though they were founded on privileges. — In like manner the new mode of governing by viceroys the provinces was a real benefit, even to thoſe that were moſt proud of their chartered rights*.

This

* To omit for the preſent a great many very important advantages, we ſhall here only mention, that formerly in Livonia and Eſthonia ſeveral civil offices muſt be executed

This naturally leads us to a ſubject which has never yet been unfolded in any ſatisfactory manner by the authors that have written on Ruſſia, namely, the fundamental laws of the empire. Some writers have, indeed, affirmed that ſuch laws do exiſt, while others will not allow it, or at leaſt expreſs their doubts upon the matter; probably becauſe they either have not duly conſidered the nature of political conſtitutions in general, or not properly examined into that of Ruſſia*. Certainly, if we were to aſk the Ruſſians, eſpecially the great multitude, concerning them, we ſhould ſoon have reaſon to doubt of their exiſtence, as it is not cuſtomary to make them the ſubject of converſation†; though we frequently hear of laws of

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gratis. Now every officer has his regular ſalary: and many places furniſh a decent income to perſons who were a charge upon the public. Therefore theſe, as well as other provinces, thanked the empreſs for giving them the new inſtitution by deputies.

* If they had conſidered that in the whole world there is no ſuch thing as a pure deſpotiſm, they would at leaſt have been led to ſuppoſe that there muſt be fundamental laws in Ruſſia, even though they were not to be pointed out, and ſtill leſs in writing, but were only traditional. — They ſeem to have been led by an imaginary notion of fundamental laws that will by no means ſuit with Ruſſia.

† Nor is this at all ſurpriſing; in many other countries, where the ſubjects have not the ſame opportunities of diſcourſing

of the empire and imperial laws *, which, however, in ſome caſes, may be regarded as component parts of them †. What then are we to underſtand

courſing on the laws and ſtate affairs as we have in England, you will ſcarcely find even a literary man who can give you a good account of the laws, under the protection of which he lives; this knowledge is generally confined to the public functionaries.

* Theſe two expreſſions are often uſed as ſynonimous, yet they ſeem ſometimes to admit of a diſtinction. Perhaps we might ſay that every ukaſe coming from the throne, unleſs it relate entirely to a private concern, is a law of the empire; but when it delivers a general rule (though only for ſome particular claſs, &c.) it is then to be ranked among the imperial laws, which are ſometimes called imperial regulations, and from their collective contents, the imperial conſtitution. To this conſequently belong even particular ukaſes, as there is not yet any complete code, though there are already many collections of laws. — The patent granted by her majeſty ſome years ſince to the nobility, which they received with gratitude as a beneficial privilege, is an imperial law. It aſcertains the pretenſions of the nobility, as the golden bull in Germany, and the magna charta in England, aſcertain certain rights and immunities. The two latter are fundamental laws of the countries to which they relate; why then ſhould not the firſt-mentioned bear the ſame title, or be regarded as a component part of the fundamental law, that aſcertains the pretenſions of the people? At leaſt it has an important influence in the conſtitution; and to the nobility, is in the place of a fundamental law. — In ſome reſpects the ſame may be ſaid of the new political regulation of the governments as a privilege.

† We learn from hiſtory, that the teutonic nations, almoſt to the time of Charlemagne, had no other laws than old eſta-

derſtand by fundamental laws? In many countries they are merely traditionary, and it would be requiring too much to expect that they ſhould be always written in formal characters and ſolemnly promulgated *. Neither are we to forget that in many countries they do not at all extend

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bliſhed maxims derived from father to ſon. No man will affirm that their conſtitutions were deſtitute of fundamental laws; for certainly to them belonged the democratic form of government, the limited power of their kings, the allodial freedom, and the great right of holding lands in fee-ſimple, &c. When theſe nations began to commit their traditional maxims to writing, then aroſe, among the Franks, for example, the ſalique law, and others, as acknowledged fundamental laws. The burgundian, ſaxon, and other laws, had exactly the ſame origin. But they were in being and valid long before they were reduced to writing.

* See Schlœtzer's hiſtorical inquiry, and Putter's diſp. de legum imperii fundamentalium et civilium differentia, which authors make contents and form abſolutely neceſſary to fundamental laws; and the latter ſays expreſsly that the people muſt make them, or concur in making them, or at leaſt voluntarily approve of them. Now, this requires a few words of remark. The ſolemn form and written text is to be found only in ſome countries: but neither of them are neceſſary properties, if traditionary maxims with many nations have long ſupplied and ſtill ſupply the place of fundamental laws. Juſt as little is it abſolutely neceſſary that the people ſhould make or concur in making them: for Minos, Solon, Lycurgus, and other famous legiſlators, framed not only civil but fundamental laws, which the people merely admitted; for conſent may be either verbal or tacit.

to each particular province, but that theſe may ſometimes have a ſort of conſtitution of their own. — In Ruſſia they can ſhew fundamental laws reduced to writing; but whether all be ſo or not requires a ſhort review of former tranſactions. It would be a difficult undertaking to aſcertain their origin throughout in ſucceſſion of time, but two of them at leaſt muſt be of equal date with the body politic. For, though the ruſſian hiſtory, as far as it is at preſent known, ſays nothing of any antient compact, either oral or written, between the ſovereign and the people, yet no man will eaſily be perſuaded, that the independent and free ruſſian tribes, when they choſe foreign princes, as they did Rurik and his brethren, to be their rulers, ſubmitted themſelves unconditionally, without any reſervation of life and property, to their arbitrary will; as may likewiſe be ſaid of the period, when, after the extinction of Rurik's race, the crown was conveyed to the elder *Godunof, and laſtly to the houſe of Romanof: nor can it any more be conceived, that theſe princes would have taken upon them the burden of government,

* I ſay nothing here of Zuiſkoy, as on his acceſſion to the throne ſome of the moſt eminent of the boyars, as has been already mentioned, propoſed to his option ſome articles, by which they abrogated the old fundamental laws which defined the grand prerogatives of majeſty, and in their ſtead propoſed new ones with limitations: which innovation the people ſoon found to be prejudicial, and entirely rejected.

without

poſitive and negative would be ſuperfluous, becauſe what we ſhould allow to the monarch as poſitive would belong to the negatives of the people. But an accurate ſtatement of what relates to all the ſubjects in general, or to certain ranks in particular, might tend to illuſtrate many things; yet, without running into prolixity, it would be difficult to know always where to draw the line: beſides, neither the limits nor the plan of this undertaking would allow of inſerting abſtracts of privileges, grants, edicts, patents, &c. The proof that there are fundamental laws of the empire in Ruſſia, with a reference to them,

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to the prerogatives of the ſovereign, namely, 1. his unlimited authority, and 2. the hereditary right of his poſterity to the ruſſian throne. He adopts them both from the charter of ſettlement which was drawn up and ſubſcribed by all the ranks on the extinction of the race of Rurik, on the 14th of April, 1613, at the election of Mikhaila Romanof: to which, however, he adds the preſumption, that the framer of that charter of ſettlement actually repreſented the whole nation. But this preſumption is needleſs, as that charter, by recognizing an unlimited authority and hereditary ſucceſſion, brought no new prerogative into action, but only acknowledged both as an uſage handed down from times immemorial, and generally acknowledged as ſalutary, (if indeed records of remote antiquity on that matter were not already in being,) repeated for the purpoſe of utterly annihilating the attempted limitation at the election of tzar Zuiſkoy.—In favour of the claims of the people, M. Schlœtzer finds nothing like a fundamental law of the empire.

will

will furniſh the reader with ſufficient occaſion for his own farther reflections*. — Such are the following:

I. In regard to the ſovereign:

1. The hereditary ſucceſſion†: 1. That the throne is heritable in both ſexes, were nothing reduced to writing on this head, either in the charter of ſettlement of the year 1613, or in any more antient record, yet this prerogative is one of the uſages handed down from their anceſtors, and recognized as valid by the people, which as a tradition admitted by the whole nation‡, in the preſent caſe, has the force of a fundamental law of the empire. 2. The right to appoint the ſucceſſor, of which a ſufficient elucidation has been given before§.

* It is not my deſign to exhauſt the ſubject by producing all the fundamental laws of the empire that are in being. Neither will it merit any very high degree of animadverſion if ſome ſhould here be reckoned among them on which others might perhaps refuſe to beſtow that title.

† That even Schlœtzer acknowledges it to be a fundamental law has been mentioned juſt above.

‡ Which never thought of calling this right of ſucceſſion into queſtion. — Indeed Schlœtzer is of opinion, in his hiſtorical enquiry, that the frequent repetition of an act does not beget a law; but uſage ſupplying the place of law may ariſe from it.

§ It is not neceſſary to derive it from a later ordinance, and to call it, with Buſching, a fundamental law. But it follows from two acknowledged fundamental laws which aſcribe the hereditary ſucceſſion and the unlimited authority to the ſovereign.

2. The

2. The uncircumſcribed authority * which comprehends all the great and excluſive prerogatives of majeſty, ſome of which have been already ſpecified, e. g. the ſole legiſlation, even in eccleſiaſtical matters, together with the office of chief magiſtrate, the full power to make war and peace, to aſcertain regalties, &c. To this may be added, that the ſovereign has the right to employ the revenues of the empire according as he thinks fit; to enforce all his abſolute commands with his military; to conſtitute imperial colleges, or to alter them again; to appropriate to himſelf all lands and grounds which have no determinate owner, and to diſpoſe of them as he pleaſes; to appoint, conſtitute, and employ certain free people immediately belonging to the crown, where he ſhall think proper, if no particular privileges, immunities, &c. expreſsly declare otherwiſe; to change the reſidence; to ſhare the government with another †, or to lay it down ‡; to travel out of the empire, and to appoint at will a regency for the interim, &c.

* This likewiſe Schlœtzer declares to be a fundamental law of the empire.

† The ruſſian hiſtory affords examples of this, to which never any thing was objected.

‡ Whether in ſuch a caſe he could appropriate and preſerve any particular prerogatives, and of what kind, would indeed be a problem in the civil law of Ruſſia.

3. That the ſovereign is an imperial majeſty, and the dominion an empire. The ſolemn offer of this title by the ariſtocracy in the name of the whole empire, the acceptance of it in behalf of all the ſucceſſion, are reaſons for deeming this a fundamental law of the empire.

The queſtion, whether the rights of the ſovereign include a partition of the empire, by means whereof he may, for inſtance, if he have ſeveral heirs, aſſign to each of them his ſeparate portion, with all the regalties, may be conſidered in two points of view. His unlimited authority ſeems to decide for the affirmative, eſpecially as partitions have been made in antient times. On the other ſide there appear to be weighty reaſons againſt ſuch a diſmemberment, at leaſt to diſſuade from it, as, among others: becauſe the former partitions brought on a weakneſs and a ſenſible decline of the empire*; becauſe, from the time of tzar Ivan Vaſſillievitch it has remained undivided; becauſe, as an hereditary empire, it gives the next ſucceſſor authentic claim to an unbroken ſovereignty; becauſe there is only one ruſſian empire; becauſe the very title of a ſelf or ſole ruler of all Ruſſia, or of all the Ruſſias, precludes every diſmemberment. To this may be added, that, by Tatiſchtſchef's account, tzar Ivan the

* It ſhould not, however, be forgotten, that at that time it was not by far of ſo vaſt extent as at preſent.

great,

great, after he had thrown off the tartarian yoke, and reſtored the monarchy, eſtabliſhed the indiviſibility of the empire by a law which he cauſed to be confirmed by a diet convened by him for that purpoſe. — The matter aſſumes another ſhape by important conqueſts, which ſeem to form an exception, becauſe then the arguments adduced neither oppoſe it nor have place *. — In like manner the ſovereign has undoubtedly a right to aſſign to his heirs certain apanages within the empire though without regalties.

In all countries the ruler takes the throne under certain obligations; but not everywhere can a code be referred to on that ſubject, which, in all probability, is the caſe in Ruſſia.

2. In regard to the ſubjects there are ſpecific obligations and rights. The former ariſe either from the abſtract idea of ſubjects and from the nature and end of government; they are, therefore, alike in all countries, ſuch as reſpect towards the majeſty, fealty and obedience, ſervice, payment of legal taxes, &c. — or they proceed from the fundamental laws which aſcertain the prerogatives of the crown.

* In ſuch a caſe it could not properly be called a partition or diſmemberment. This could have happened, for example, if Holſtein had not been given up; a grand ducal prince might have received it as a ſeparate dukedom, for it did not belong to the empire. The ſame holds good, likewiſe, of a conquered province, it can be reſtored or erected into a ſeparate ſtate.

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The rights of the ſubjects are grounded either on the idea of ſubjects, or on the end and aim of a conſtitution, or on old derived cuſtoms, or on written fundamental laws, or privileges that ſtand in place of law, and the like. They concern either the empire at large, or particular tribes, ranks, and claſſes; and in ſuch regards they include, ſecurity of perſon, of reputation, and of property; juſtice not denied; legal protection againſt violence and oppreſſion; unmoleſted enjoyment of all lawfully obtained immunities, privileges, and rights; the right, on the extinction of the reigning family, if no ſucceſſor be appointed, to elect one, &c. — Accordingly, the nobility may juſtly demand the quiet enjoyment of all the privileges and immunities granted to them by letters of grace*. — The burghers may appeal to the privileges granted to them in the regulations for townſhips. — The Don-kozaks, and other na-

* Among them may in ſome meaſure be reckoned not only ſome laws in the Uloſhenie, and ſeveral ſingle ukaſes, e. g. concerning the right to poſſeſs eſtates and vaſſals, particularly the letter of grace diſpenſed by the late empreſs to the nobility in the year 1785; likewiſe one ſomewhat prior, that of the 18th of February 1762, by which the emperor Peter III. abſolves the nobility from the obligation, formerly indiſpenſable, to enter into the military or civil ſervice, even againſt their will. As the rights in the laſt-mentioned letter of grace are expreſsly called in it a fundamental law of the empire unalterable for ever, then other the like letters of grace and privileges may properly be called fundamental laws of the empire.

tions of that kind, may juſtly expect that no invaſion be made on their diſtricts and poſſeſſions, or any infringement of their rights, &c.

It having been before mentioned that it might be ſhewn from ſome examples borrowed from other countries, that fundamental laws are ſuſceptible of a gradual enlargement or limitation, it would be needleſs to ſtart the queſtion, whether they ought in general to be regarded as eternal and unalterable? They have, perhaps, never been ſo in any known country; a thouſand accidents, favour, war, revolution, intellectual improvement, ſtupidity, and human depravity, the verieſt trifles in nature may effect an alteration *.

In concluſion to this head it will be proper, for obtaining a more complete knowledge of the conſtitution, to take a retroſpect view of ſome of the ſubjects that have been chiefly noticed, and may ſeem to require a more particular account.

The legiſlative authority is the monarch alone; neither the whole nation as a body, nor ſingle members or claſſes of it, can claim any part therein. Indeed the late empreſs ſummoned a number of perſons, from the ſeveral provinces and orders of people, as commiſſioners for framing a code of laws; but not as though this ought to have been done by the conſtitution of the empire, but becauſe

* Accordingly we are not to imagine that the welfare of the ſtate entirely depends on theſe fundamental laws.

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ſhe deſigned to give her ſubjects a complete law-book, ſo compoſed as to ſuit all the provinces and the ſeveral orders of people according to their peculiar ſituation, and to procure the utmoſt poſſible perfection, as well as the beſt introduction to the precepts it ſhould contain. — Whenever the ſenate, a college, the magiſtracy of a province, or a governor, iſſues any ordinances or precepts, they muſt be conformable to the laws in being, and grounded upon them by name; after which it is reſerved to the ſovereign to examine and to alter them at will. — The executive authority is indeed committed to the regular courts, but always under the chief inſpection of the monarch, in whoſe name they act, becauſe, as he is the ſole legiſlator, he is alſo the ſovereign judge. Beſides, the empreſs, not only in her Inſtruction for the law-commiſſion, ſect. 127, laid it down as a rule that "ſome judges ſhall be of the ſame rank with "the culprit, that is, his equals," but reduced to practice that beneficial principle, as far as was poſſible in the preſent ſtate of things, in her ordinances for the adminiſtration of the governments. — All commands, ordinances, ſentences, and juridical matters are, as was ſaid before, iſſued in the name or by the command of the imperial majeſty, which formerly was done on the bare authority of the imperial colleges, &c. but never by the middle or inferior courts. Conſequently, there are now none but pure imperial commands; and the only

difference is in the ſource by which they are publiſhed. One publiſhed by the ſenate, or any other high imperial college, is likewiſe called an ukaſe; but when it proceeds directly from the majeſty, it is an imennoï ukaſe, or a namely-decree, that is ſigned by the monarch's own hand with his name.

The ſovereign is alſo the ſole diſpenſer of all ranks and dignities*: to the higher he himſelf appoints the perſons, and ſigns with his own hand the inſtrument or patent. Among theſe are, of the clergy, the prelates (archihierèys), namely, metropolitans, archbiſhops, and biſhops; of the military, all generals of the army to the colonels of regiments, and of the fleet, the admirals to the captains of ſhips; in the civil department, the ſenators, general-governors, governors, preſidents of the ſuperior colleges, &c. The inferior degrees are beſtowed in his name by the proper commiſſioners or boards, e. g. in the civil department by the ſenate, in the military by the college of war, in the navy by the admiralty, in the church by the ſynod, in the medical department by the college of medicine, &c. Other poſts, as in the provincial governments, are in the appointment of the general-governor of each, &c. All theſe likewiſe deliver the letters of induction with their

* Therefore every promotion conferred by a college is regarded as coming from the ſovereign himſelf.

own ſignatures; only the patents of ſtaff-officers, &c. muſt be ſigned by the monarch. To all theſe poſts *, moreover, a definite rank is annexed, uniformly according to the military ſtandard, a circumſtance almoſt peculiar to Ruſſia †. It is to be obſerved, that in the civil department ſome places are of a twofold ſpecies, that is, either titular or actual, for inſtance, titular privy-counſellor or actual privy-counſellor ‡, and the like. But actual ſervice is not always connected with either §.

Formerly

* Even the empty titles which are given as a reward for good behaviour or faithful ſervice.

† Peter I. who aſſigned to every poſt its ſtated rank, took the ſtandard from the army probably in the ſole deſign of ſhewing his people how important it was in his eyes, and at the ſame time to point out the path to honour. — To many of the offices at court he affixed a very moderate rank; but they were raiſed by his next female ſucceſſors.

‡ In Livonia and Eſthonia the half-french and half-german expreſſion *etatſrath* is common, which ſounds the more ſingular as it is heard neither in Germany nor in Ruſſia: the german word *ſtat* has been naturalized in the ruſſian language.

§ It is not however hence to be inferred as if titles were ſold, or diſtributed in lieu of pay: ſuch a traffic is unknown in Ruſſia; neither patents of nobility, nor commiſſions for officers, &c. are to be had for money. But numbers of *raths*, *ſtaatſraths*, and the like, obtain the title of *actual*, merely becauſe a higher rank is annexed to it. Thus every livonian and eſthonian *landrath*, the old equeſtrian *landſtaat*, or magiſtracy of the knights-templars, being aboliſhed as unneceſſary, obtains the

Formerly there were ſeveral monopolies of the crown *, but the late empreſs, to the manifeſt advantage of her ſubjects, aboliſhed the greater part of them, reſerving only two, namely, ſalt and brandy †. The former, as a neceſſary of life, is cheaper in Ruſſia than in ſome other countries, and is every where ſold at the ſame price ‡; wherefore the crown, conſidering the expence attending it §, gains but little on that article. Brandy,

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title of an actual *ſtaatſrath*, without being thereby inveſted with any office. — As in like manner in Germany many titles are diſpenſed to noblemen, profeſſors, phyſicians, &c.

* Namely, rhubarb, potaſhes, tobacco, tar, train-oil, caviar, china ware, and formerly likewiſe yufts, &c.

† Some writers ſpeak of four reſerved monopolies, adding to the two abovementioned, ſaltpetre and gunpowder. But ſeemingly without reaſon: for both theſe articles, in conſideration of a ſlight duty, may by any one be exported or imported, and ſold in the ſhops to any purchaſer. Beſides, in many parts they make their own gunpowder, and there are private manufactories of ſaltpetre for public ſale.

‡ At thirty-five kopeeks the pood. Except thoſe provinces of the Baltic and White Ruſſia that have permiſſion to bring ſalt from abroad.

§ Salt-pans are attended with great expence; which is not the caſe with rock-ſalt or at the ſalt-lakes, becauſe there nothing more is neceſſary than to cut the ſalt, or ſhovel it directly into the ſcales; but the long tranſport by land and water ſubjects the crown to conſiderable expences.

being

being not ſo neceſſary, is far dearer *, of which more will be ſaid hereafter.

In regard to landed property in general, the following may ſuffice. It belongs either to the crown, or to private owners, and that again either to individuals, or in common to a whole tribe: but this requires a farther ſtatement. In Great Ruſſia, at preſent the landed property is either in the crown, or in the nobility, or in the townſhips, or in the odnodvortſi: but to the firſt-mentioned all that to which no private perſon can produce a valid title †. — In Little-Ruſſia the landed property belongs either to the crown, or to the nobles ſettled there, or to the townſhips, or to the Kozaks. The laſt conſidered themſelves formerly as the ſole legal poſſeſſors. To the crown belong all thoſe eſtates which formerly were allotted to the hetman and the chiefs of the people, in lieu of ſtipends; as likewiſe what has ſince come to it by purchaſe. The nobility of Great-Ruſſia have bought eſtates

* People, therefore, who, from their climate or their employments, &c. would be inclined to indulge in ſtrong drinks, are obliged to content themſelves with much cheaper and more wholeſome liquors, as beer, quas, mead, berry-wine, kumiſs, &c. which they prepare themſelves. With all this, however, a prodigious quantity of brandy is conſumed.

† Accordingly the crown has at times appropriated to itſelf thoſe parcels of land about which contending parties could not be brought to agreement by a proper ſurveyor, and cauſed them to be marked out by black poſts.

there *, and received many others as donations from the crown. — In the country of the Don-kozaks, though they are originally brethren of the Ruſſians of Great and Little-Ruſſia, all belongs to the nation of the Kozaks: neither the crown nor any nobleman can appropriate to themſelves any thing there †. Many of the ſteppes are not allotted as property to any ſtanitza (village) or private perſon: yet the crown has never appropriated to itſelf any part of them; but each Kozak occupies as much as he chooſes, and then leaves it again to lie waſte. — The caſe is much the ſame with the Ural-kozaks; but there the crown has always exerciſed the right of conſtructing forts at pleaſure, and to keep garriſons in them, to the uſes whereof however certain pieces of ground that lie contiguous are allotted. So probably it might appropriate and let out the very productive fiſhery on the river Ural: at leaſt perſons well

* While the Ukraine was under the poliſh dominion, the poliſh nobility acquired eſtates there either by purchaſe, or perhaps alſo by ſeizure and uſurpation, at which the Kozaks at that time loudly complained, and frequently riſing up in arms drove them out. But on the ſubjection of the country to Ruſſia, it was expreſsly ſtated at the confirmation of the privileges, that the ruſſian nobility may poſſeſs landed eſtates there.

† That the crown may cut canals there in caſes of neceſſity againſt an enemy, and conſtruct places of defence, is naturally to be underſtood, it being for the benefit of the country at large.

verſed

verſed in theſe matters affirm that this right is inherent in it; though the Kozaks would look with an evil eye at ſuch a ſtep. — It is otherwiſe in the country of the Baſchkirs, towards the mountain Uraltau, or the Ural in its ſtricteſt ſenſe. The crown is there the proprietor of large mine-works and extenſive tracts of foreſt *; but all the reſt of the land the Baſchkirs have always appropriated to themſelves as their excluſive heritage; yet in ſuch manner, as not appertaining to the whole nation; but that each main-ſtem, and each race of them, is always the complete excluſive owner of one diſtrict. Accordingly, if they ſell a piece of foreſt to a mine-maſter, their cuſtom is to reſerve to themſelves, as a teſtimony of their manorial right, the game, the wild-growing hops, and the bee-hives therein. They likewiſe adopt coloniſts among them †, to whom they readily give a right to build houſes and to occupy pieces of land at will, for which they take a trifling rent. The like method is purſued by the Meſtſcherækes and Tartars, who freely let out to any menial ſervants that come and ſettle among them, wood, paſture,

* Perhaps by voluntary ceſſion, or ſimply as royalties from the time of the conqueſt of the country. — It is affirmed by ſome that almoſt all the land in Siberia belongs to the crown; which we muſt leave undecided, but it ſeems highly improbable.

† That is, of their own accord, at the requeſt of the coloniſts; they are not obliged to it.

and

and arable land, as much as they have occaſion for, at a yearly ground-rent of twenty-five kopeeks *. Only they will not that ruſſian villages ſhould be arbitrarily conſtructed among or near them †; probably not alone on account of their freehold-right, but likewiſe for fear of a gradual reſtriction, and what may eaſily follow, a total ejection ‡.

Another of the prerogatives that adhere to the throne is, that the ſovereign can appoint a regency during the minority of his ſucceſſor, and fix the period of his arriving at majority. But if he neglect to do ſo during his lifetime, then the queſtion ariſes, who ſhall provide for the guardianſhip and education of the ſucceſſor during his minority, and declare the time of his being of age? As there is no expreſs law on this head, nobody is at preſent uncontrovertibly thus qualified,

* Pallas's travels, vol. ii. p. 51, alſo p. 30 & ſq.

† Id. ib. p. 33.

‡ In ſome of the former reigns the queſtion has been agitated at the court of St. Peterſburg, whether lands ſhould be allotted to the ruſſian nobility among people aſſerting the ſame right of property. Sagacious miniſters have always been againſt it: partly becauſe the nobility, ſoon increaſing their numbers, might attempt to put reſtraints on the liberty of the inhabitants; partly becauſe ſuch proceedings might excite great diſcontents, ſad murmurs, and other ill conſequences, eſpecially as ſuch nations are extremely jealous of their rights, real or imaginary, as experience has often ſhewn.

and

and the queſtion cannot be anſwered. It ſeems moſt natural that the next relation, without regard to ſex, ſhould undertake that matter as is done in other monarchies*; but, to paſs over many other difficulties that might hence ariſe, or for want of legal authority, it is even poſſible that there may be no ſuch relation of age †. Then it ſeems to fall either to the council, or to the directing ſenate, or to the high imperial colleges collectively ‡; but to all theſe a legal authority is wanting §. Beſides, the council is only the privy-council of the ſovereign; the ſenate has a co-ordinate college, namely, the ſynod; the reſt of the imperial colleges are ſubordinate to the ſenate, and cannot exerciſe an equal authority with it. Were there any eſtates of the country having voices, or inveſted with authority, they would ſhew their influence herein: but the ruſſian form of government knows nothing of ſuch. — Perhaps it might have been the intention of Catharine II.

* An inſtance of this was ſeen in France during the minority of Louis XV.

† Or if even there were ſeveral ſuch relations making equal claim, who ſhould decide between them?

‡ Particular families, however great their conſideration, could not pretend to any right, as in Ruſſia there is only one nobility, of which every family may riſe by merit and good fortune: properly none have a precedence before others.

§ It was for this reaſon that the empreſs Anna left a teſtamentary direction who ſhould conduct the government and have the care of educating the infant ſucceſſor.

that

that the new code of laws ſhould have provided for meeting ſuch difficulties, by determining what perſons in the ſaid caſes ſhould be the ſubſtitutes or repreſentatives of the nation*. With regard to the power of doing this, it is generally allowed that the legiſlative authority is competent to it; it follows then of conſequence, that the monarch who exerciſes the legiſlative authority in his dominion, can give fundamental laws.

SECTION IV.

The Form of Government.

WHAT is properly the form of government in Ruſſia, and what the fitteſt for the empire, may be beſt aſcertained by the perſon who holds the ſovereignty. On this ſubject the empreſs Catharine II. gives us the following information †.

" The ſovereign (of the ruſſian empire) is ab-
" ſolute: for no other than an authority con-
" centrated in his perſon alone can adequately
" operate through the extent of ſo large an em-
" pire.

* If, indeed, as Mr. Schlœtzer obſerves, there can be ſaid to be a nation where the government is abſolute. Hiſtor. unterſuchung.

† Inſtruction to the commiſſion for framing a code of laws, chap. ii. ſect. 9—16.

" An

" An extenſive empire preſuppoſes an unlimited " power in the perſon who governs it. The ce- " lerity of deciſion in matters that are brought " from diſtant places muſt compenſate the tardi- " neſs that ariſes from that remoteneſs.

" Any other form of government would not " only be prejudicial to Ruſſia, but even at length " be the cauſe of its total ruin.

" Another reaſon is, becauſe it is better to obey " the laws under one ruler, than to conform to " the will of many.

" But what is the aim of an abſolute govern- " ment? Not to deprive mankind of their natural " liberty, but to direct their actions to the main- " tenance of the higheſt proſperity.

" Conſequently, a form of government which " is more than others conſtituted to that end, " and at the ſame time contracts the natural " liberty leſs than others, is that which beſt " coincides with the aims attributed to rational " creatures, and is moſt adapted to the object " they have ever had in view in the inſtitution of " civil ſocieties.

" The object and end of unlimited govern- " ments is the glory of the citizen, of the ſtate, " and of the ſovereign.

" Among a people who live under a mo- " narchical government, from this glory flows " the ſpirit of liberty, which in ſuch ſtates burſts " forth in ſuch great actions as are able, in the

" very

" very ſame proportion, to promote the happineſs " of the ſubjects as liberty itſelf."

Accordingly, the form of government is unlimited monarchy. However, the free-born ruſſian ſubjects are always treated as ſuch. The empreſs never ſhut herſelf up in her palace like an eaſtern deſpot; her ſubjects might boldly approach her, not in the degrading manner of wretched ſlaves, but in the conſciouſneſs that they were not debarred the rights of man. — It is true, that to preſent petitions directly to the ſovereign is forbidden by repeated ukaſes, particularly when the proper courts have paſſed them by. Nevertheleſs it is done on urgent occaſions; and then depoſitions, petitions, &c. are ſent directly by poſt to the monarch. But in an affair of litigation, if either of the parties would appeal to the empreſs from the decree of the ſenate, the petition muſt be delivered to one of the cabinet-miniſters. — In general it is permitted the ſubjects to utter their complaints and to make a repreſentation of them. Thus, the nobility may ſend deputies: this the Ukrainians have long been accuſtomed to do, as alſo the Livonians and Eſthonians: only of late, for the ſake of preventing abuſes, the form has been preſcribed in which it is to be done. — When the crown is in want of any thing, for inſtance, materials for building, the delivery of certain products, it is contracted for by fair and open propoſals; and, as in other countries, he who offers

offers to undertake it on the loweſt terms is the perſon employed; and, if required, is paid certain ſums in advance, on giving proper ſecurity.

SECTION V.

The Imperial Family, hereditary Succeſſion, Grand Duke.

WHILE it was the practice to partition the empire, when the ruler was ſtyled Grand Prince, the princes of his family bore that ſubordinate title, and when they poſſeſſed diſtinct principalities, were called after them. After that cuſtom had ceaſed, and all the principalities united into one body under one ſole head, who was ſtyled Tzar, the appellation Tzarevitch, or ſon of the tzar, came into uſe, which in the eighteenth century was changed for Tzeſarevitch, that is, ſon of the emperor. The laſt is ſtill at times made uſe of in ſtate-papers*, though it is by no means a general appellative of the imperial family. For the children of it are called, in the preſent tables

* While the emperor was ſtyled in ruſs Tzefar, his ſon ſhould of courſe be called Tzeſarevitch. But it is ſomewhat ſurpriſing that, after the introduction of the title Imperator, the latter was not rather called Imperatorevitch. It can hardly be accounted for by any particular cuſtom, as even the former expreſſion is foreign to the ruſſian tongue.

of

of precedence, princes and princeſſes; which latter title was borne by Anna and Elizabeth before their acceſſion to the throne. It is now almoſt obſolete, as grand duke, grand ducheſs, ſupply its place: and this not only with the proper and neareſt ſucceſſor, but alſo with his family, all his children bearing the ſtyle of grand dukes and grand ducheſſes; hence it may be inferred, that if he have brothers and ſiſters the ſame would be given to them. Probably it may be a relic of days of yore *. — On the birth of prince Ivan, who was afterwards declared ſucceſſor to the throne, the then grand-chancellor count Oſtermann propoſed that he ſhould be ſtyled Grand Duke. The regent Anna likewiſe appears in ſeveral records under the title of grand ducheſs; as well as the princeſs Elizabeth previous to her mounting the throne. The latter, it is well known, when empreſs, declared her nephew to be her ſuc-

* Therefore, a grand duke is called, as formerly, in ruſs, *velikye knæs*, (literally the great prince,) and a grand ducheſs, *velikaya knæghinya*, the great princeſs. — French being much ſpoken at court, the grand duke was, by her majeſty's command, the only perſon in the empire called in that language Monſeigneur. — The terms crown-prince, hereditary-prince, heir-apparent, &c. are not uſual here. Neither has any term been introduced in Ruſſia to denote peculiarly the next in ſucceſſion. Rodde, indeed, in his ruſs dictionary has the word *naſlednik*, but ſo every heir or ſucceſſor is called; therefore the next heir ſhould be properly ſtyled *naſlednik preſtola* or *preyemnik preſtola*, as the throne is *preſtol*.

ceſſor,

ceſſor, under the title of grand duke. — The expreſſion prince or princeſs is not however on that account entirely exploded: for though in the imperial ukaſes, relating to the births of the grand ducal children, they are uniformly called grand dukes and grand ducheſſes, it is ſaid in the ukaſe of May 21, 1788, expreſsly, that her imperial highneſs the grand ducheſs was ſafely delivered of a grand ducal princeſs, whereupon it is commanded, "that on all occaſions where it is neceſſary to "mention the new-born grand ducal princeſs, "ſhe ſhall be written and denominated her im-"perial highneſs." So likewiſe the empreſs ſays, in her ukaſe of Dec. 20, 1777, in relation to the birth of the eldeſt of the ſons of Paul Petrovitch, that, God having bleſſed "their imperial high-"neſſes with a firſt-born ſon, and us with a "grand-ſon Alexander Pavlovitch — — we "ordain, that in all caſes and on all occaſions, "in our empire, that relate to him, the title of "his imperial highneſs the grand duke Alexander "Pavlovitch ſhall be given to him." When the ſecond young grand duke Conſtantine Pavlovitch was born, it was ordered in like manner; and in the ukaſe bearing date Aug. 6, 1783, the empreſs ſays: "Her imperial highneſs the grand ducheſs "was ſafely delivered on the 29th of July, and "has borne us a grand daughter, the grand "ducheſs Alexandra Pavlovna;" whereupon the

edict proceeds, "that this new-born grand duchefs in all affairs where it is requiſite, ſhall be "written and called her imperial highneſs."

From theſe ſeveral ukaſes it appears, that the next ſucceſſor, his conſort and all their children, are ſtyled grand dukes and grand ducheſſes; and that they all bear the title of imperial highneſs *; that it is conferred upon them always by a ſigned decree of the monarch †, and that, reſpecting the grand-daughters, the terms grand ducheſs and grand ducal princeſs are ſometimes ſynonimous.

The rights of a grand duke, as heir apparent, have never been accurately defined by any writer. Perhaps it would be no eaſy matter to aſcertain them ‡. As in other countries, he is, as it were, the firſt ſubject, and is, not only, as every where, under the paternal authority, but likewiſe in ge-

* Highneſs is in ruſs *vuiſotſchеſtvo*, derived from *vuiſoke*, high. Hence it is ſaid, *Yevo imperatorſkoye vuiſotſchеſtvo*, his or her imperial highneſs.

† Whether without ſuch an edict the title would ſtill take place, I ſhall not preſume to inquire. In all kingdoms the children of crowned heads are ſtyled highneſs. In regard to grand-children it is ſometimes otherwiſe.

‡ An engliſh writer expreſſes his ſurpriſe that the rights, &c. of a grand duke are not expreſsly aſcertained. But it may be aſked, are the rights of the next heir exactly defined in all other countries? How did this appear to be the caſe in England in the year 1788, in the affair of the regency?

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neral under the authority of the ſovereign, which is of great extent, as is manifeſt from the hiſtory of Peter I. and his eldeſt ſon. — Neither has he, any more than in other ſtates, properly any functions ariſing from his high birth and appointment: they depend on the good pleaſure of the ſovereign. In the late reign the grand duke, by the will of the empreſs his mother, was high-admiral and chief of a regiment of cuiraſſiers. The empreſs Elizabeth conferred on the then grand duke likewiſe a regiment of cuiraſſiers and the ſuperintendance of the cadet-corps.

The princes and princeſſes of the reigning family have no ſettled apanage or eſtabliſhment; their houſehold, when they have one apart, depends entirely on the pleaſure of the ſovereign. — The annual allowance to the grand duke is uſually, if I miſtake not, 220,000 rubles, and ſometimes more, to which alſo many great preſents are added. Eſtates in land in lieu of revenue have never been (at leaſt in modern times) ſettled on them; but country-ſeats frequently. — The grand duke Paul Petrovitch, by his paternal deſcent from the houſe of Schleſvig-Holſtein, was grand-maſter of the order of St. Anne.

SECTION VI.

Enſigns armorial, imperial Court, and Orders of chivalry.

THESE ſubjects may properly be treated of together, as they need no very circumſtantial diſquiſition, and are in ſome degree related to each other.

The arms in the middle ages were borrowed from Moſco, at that time the imperial reſidence, conſiſting of St. George on horſeback killing a dragon with a ſpear. Tzar Ivan Vaſſillievitch made choice of a black ſpread eagle*, with a crown on each head, a larger crown between them, in a golden field, and holding in one claw a ſceptre, and in the other an imperial mound, with the ſaid arms of Moſco on the breaſt. Sometimes it is ſurrounded with a collar compoſed of the arms of ſome of the countries belonging to the ruſſian empire; as Aſtrakhan, Kazan, Siberia, &c.

* Why he choſe an eagle is uncertain; perhaps becauſe the neighbouring Poles and the german emperor bore one. — As to the George and dragon, it would not be the worſt conjecture that ever was made, that it aroſe merely from the order of the Garter which was ſent to Ivan Vaſſillievitch by queen Elizabeth.

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This is accordingly the imperial ſeal. When the empreſs made uſe of it for letters it had an imperial mantle, and over it an imperial * crown; ſhe ſealed her letters ſometimes with a hand-ſeal, the impreſſion of which was a bunch of flowers, with a bee-hive, and in the middle at top a bee with the ſuperſcription POLESNOYE, i. e. uſeful.

The imperial colleges and ſome of the higher courts of juſtice have always borne theſe arms in their ſignets, commonly with the expreſs notification, that it is her imperial majeſty's ſeal. Only in the conquered provinces ſeveral of the courts of judicature retained the uſe of their antient ſeal. Since the introduction of the governments this cuſtom has almoſt entirely ceaſed: every court employing the imperial ſeal, declaring by letters round it to what court it belongs. Perhaps ſome of the ſpiritual courts or conſiſtories, and others, as well as ſuch as have no appropriate chancery or public ſeal, are an exception to this.

The court is compoſed of the great officers of ſtate, of ſenators, actual privy-counſellors, princes, counts, barons, &c. whoſe names may be ſeen in the ruſſian court-kalendar, one cup-bearer, one maſter of the horſe, one high chamberlain, one maſter of the hunt, one court-marſhal, one court-maſter, one

* To ukaſes, patents, &c. there never was that addition. The empreſs Anna uſed only the arms with her name round it.

maſter of the ſtables, twenty-three actual chamberlains, nineteen gentlemen of the bed-chamber, eight adjutant-generals, (of whom two are general field-marſhals, five generals in chief, and one lieutenant-general), fifteen enſign adjutants, one miſtreſs of the court, eight ſtate-ladies, one lady of the bed-chamber, ſix maids of honour. — Many court-holidays, as well as church-holidays, are kept not only in the reſidence, but in other towns; ſuch as the birth and name days of the imperial family, the anniverſary of the recovery of her majeſty from the ſmall-pox, the ſaints of the ſeveral orders, &c. The regiments of the guards have each their anniverſary, on which occaſion the officers dine at the imperial table*. — The court-etiquette much reſembles that in other countries of Europe; not ſo ſtiff and formal as at the Spaniſh court, or as formerly at that of Vienna, nothing is required but a polite unconſtrained behaviour. — In the amuſements at court, balls, maſquerades, &c. all who are decently dreſſed, even every burgher may take part, no queſtion being ever put on entering concerning rank or

* At ſome courts to dine with the ſovereign implies to dine at the court-marſhal's table in the palace; but here the officers ſat at the ſame table with her majeſty. Sometimes her ſeat was raiſed rather higher than the reſt, or was ſomewhat ſeparated by the figure of the table; for inſtance, when it was in the ſhape of a ſpread eagle the empreſs ſat at the crown between the two heads.

birth.

birth. — On court-days* alſo acceſs is open to every ſubject, and the ſtyle of addreſs is without ſtarchneſs on one hand or humiliating expreſſions on the other, but is ſuited to the quality of every individual.

Six orders of knighthood form a part of the ſplendor of the court, having each their inſignia, with their chapters and officers. The firſt three were conſtituted by Peter I. the two next by the late empreſs Catharine II. and the ſixth proceeds from Schleſvig-Holſtein. Of the five former the monarch is always grand-maſter; but of the ſixth, the grand duke †, which he diſpenſes in virtue of a treaty as duke of Schleſvig-Holſtein. To the fourth and fifth, penſions are annexed, though not indiſcriminately to every knight, but only to a ſelect number of the eldeſt, agreeably to the

* Sunday was the grand court-day, when the late empreſs went through the hall of audience to the chapel. Divine ſervice being ended, on her coming back into the hall, the foreign miniſters firſt kiſſed her hand; and foreigners were preſented. Then ſhe advanced ſomewhat farther, where thoſe of her ſubjects ſtood waiting to be preſented. Next came in ſucceſſion all the generals and others who had buſineſs. This done, her majeſty turned off to the chamber of the throne, where the chevalier-guards came to kiſs her hand. — Sometimes on theſe days the concourſe of perſons about the late empreſs amounted to an incredible number. Every lady, who came to kiſs her hand, even of the mercantile claſs, &c. ſhe always kiſſed on the cheek in return.

† That is, during the late reign.

ſtatutes of the order.—Theſe orders* generally take precedence according to the ſeniority of their inſtitution: 1. The order of St. Andrew, the chief of them all, commonly called the blue ribband. It was founded in the year 1689, and was afterwards provided with ſtatutes and habit by the empreſs Anna. 2. The order of St. Catharine; it was inſtituted in 1714, in honour of the empreſs Catharine I. and is confined to ladies, who wear a deep red ribband. It is given only to few perſons; at preſent, beſides the imperial family, it is worn by no more than ſeventeen, among whom are one queen and two electoral princeſſes. 3. The order of St. Alexander Nefsky was founded in 1725, and is uſually called the red ribband. 4. The order of St. George was inſtituted for military merit in the land or ſea ſervice, in the year 1769, and contains four claſſes; the ſenior knight in his claſs receives an annual penſion, in the firſt claſs of ſeven hundred and in the fourth of one hundred rubles; the fourth claſs wears it at the button-hole, the higher claſſes about the neck and acroſs the ſhoulders, to a ribband ſtriped with black and yellow: the firſt claſſes are diſtributed to but few, and therefore the fourth is diſpenſed more liberally: in 1788 of the firſt claſs were only four, and of the ſecond nine knights. 5. The

* The account of theſe orders may be here the more curſory, as farther particulars of them are ſeen in the Life of Catharine II. vol. ii. p. 413—417.

order

order of the apoſtle-like prince Vladimir was founded in the year 1783, for men of deſert in the civil or military ſtations, and has likewiſe four claſſes, of which the ſenior knight receives a penſion, in the firſt claſs ſix hundred, and in the fourth one hundred rubles: whoever has ſerved faithfully for thirty-five years may apply for this order; it is worn to a ribband, red in the middle and on each ſide a black ſtripe: the knights of the two firſt claſſes, as in the other high orders, wear a ſtar on the breaſt. 6. The order of St. Anne, of Holſtein, is worn with a coquelicoq ribband, having white edges acroſs the ſhoulders, and a ſtar at the breaſt. — It is to be obſerved, that the ruſſian orders are never given to the clergy, though to ſuch prelates as were much eſteemed by the late empreſs ſhe gave ſometimes a croſs and ſometimes her portrait, ſet with diamonds, to wear about the neck.

The annual expences of the palace were about one million five hundred thouſand rubles. About two hundred tables were ſpread there twice a day; and the diſhes for them reckoned to amount to two thouſand three hundred. Every third day the court-purveyor received the money for making this proviſion *. A pood of coffee was uſed there every

* The waſte at court was carried to an inexpreſſible height. The houſes or apartments which the empreſs cauſed to be fitted up for the perſons to whom ſhe gave quarters, contained frequently

every day; and eight thouſand poods of ſalt per month.

quently in furniture more than three times their value. — Twelve hundred candles were every day delivered out to the guard, who never conſumed one hundred. — The dinner for the officer on guard coſt ſeventy rubles; that it was worth nothing was not the fault of the empreſs. Every officer about the palace aſked for what he would in glaſſes, decanters, and things of that nature: nothing ever came back; and this happened every day. — The quantity of china-ware that was broke is incredible. Whoever broke any was obliged to ſhew the fragments, but the fragments of four or five pieces would very well ſerve for a dozen, as he was never required to fit them together. — They whoſe buſineſs it was to clean the ſilver made rapid fortunes. They had a certain ſubſtance, which by rubbing brought off much of the metal; the diminution was apparent to every attentive obſerver. — For the four months which the empreſs paſſed at Tzarſkoe-Selo, twenty-five engliſh miles from town, the Neva-water for her own table (as ſhe would take no other) coſt her ten thouſand rubles annually.

VIEW

OF THE

RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

BOOK VI.

FORCES OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

SECTION I.

Land Forces.

TO preſerve the internal ſecurity or quiet of ſo vaſt an empire, particularly to prevent diſturbances that might ariſe in the provinces and among the different tribes from miſunderſtandings, or the artifices of ill-deſigning perſons, demands a conſiderable body of troops; but a ſtill greater force is neceſſary to cover the frontiers againſt foreign enemies, and to be prepared for war from whatever quarter it may ariſe. Though the ruſſian army be numerous, yet in the opinion of ſome it might,

might, conformably with the relations of the empire, be ſtill larger. But experience has ſhewn that it is ſufficient; and in caſes of emergency the monarch can immediately raiſe a body of troops, which, if he do not chooſe to lead them into the field, will ſerve well enough to maintain the public tranquillity, to garriſon the forts on the borders, to repel the incurſions of an enemy, to put a ſtop to his ravages, and to deſtroy his magazines. I ſpeak of the irregular troops which the monarch can call out at pleaſure from thoſe nations who are obliged to perform military ſervice in lieu of the public or uſual tribute.

It is well known that the army conſiſts partly of regular infantry and cavalry, and partly of irregular troops. If we imagine that the latter are merely a wretched undiſciplined rabble, we ſhall be in a miſtake; for though the Kalmuks, Baſchkirs, &c. who form a part of them, are neither very ſerviceable, nor at all like the common ſoldiers of Europe, yet they conſtitute but a ſmall proportion of their number, and are ſeldom employed againſt regular troops. But the Kozaks have acquired great military reputation; they fully anſwer all the purpoſes of regular huſſars *, are alſo in modern times very well diſciplined, ſo that they could ſcarcely be reckoned irregulars if they did

* All their regular troops are of horſe, and ſerve as cavalry.

not retain their old kozak form of government, and at the end of the war always return home to their plough. The Kozaks of Tſchuguyef have long ſerved as well as the beſt huſſars; and lately thoſe of the Don, the moſt numerous, are fully equal to them *. At preſent, as may be ſeen by late ukaſes, the moſt ſerviceable Kozaks are divided into thoſe of Ekatarinoſlaf and thoſe of the Euxine; at leaſt they come moſt into conſideration. Prince Potemkin was hetman or commander in chief of both †.

Perhaps the regular troops would be augmented were it not for the ſake of ſparing the people, and of not burdening them with raiſing recruits. Accordingly it is uſual in war time to enliſt free people at no ſmall expence, though the empire is obliged to furniſh recruits gratis ‡. Hence it not unfrequently happens, that to avoid frequent levies

* Mr. Coxe ſeems not to have thoroughly conſidered the importance of the kozak-ſervice.

† Among the Kozaks of Ekatarinoſlaf thoſe of the Don are comprehended. Thoſe of the Euxine are originally, likewiſe, Don-kozaks, but were tranſplanted into other regions bordering on that ſea. — Thoſe Kozaks, who at preſent do not perform kozak-ſervice, e. gr. the malo-ruſſian and ſlobode-kozaks, as well as thoſe very remote, ſuch as the ſiberian, or the Tunguſes, who are bound to kozak-ſervice, fall not under this head.

‡ At ſight recruitings, which, even in time of peace, are always ordered at ſtated periods, every five hundred ſouls (meaning

vies the regiments are not complete *. — Beſides, it is to be obſerved, that ſome diſtricts, in virtue of their privileges and immunities, furniſh no recruits at all, as, the provinces of the † Baltic; and ſuch nations as, by their particular conſtitution, perform military ſervice, as the Don-kozaks. In like manner ſome of the kraſnoyarſkian-kozaks gain an exemption for themſelves and their poſterity forever, by undertaking to guard the frontiers ‡. — No German throughout the § empire,

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(meaning males) muſt furniſh one man. If we deduct children, the aged and infirm, deſerters, &c. the recruit falls upon ſomewhere about two hundred and ſixty able-bodied men. If theſe procure the recruit's conſent to ſerve by money, to which the poor contribute nothing, it falls pretty heavy on the reſt. Sometimes each recruit coſts the community two hundred or three hundred rubles, and even more.

* In times of peace there is a deficiency, perhaps, of one half of the complement. — There was once a report, as if it were intended, by way of ſparing the recruits, to raiſe the pay of the officers by the addition of one tertial, and in conſideration of that, to allow them for the future no dentſchiki (ſervants taken out of the recruits). By this means the empire would be a great gainer in people; as, from the dentſchiks, in the land and ſea-ſervice, it might raiſe, perhaps, a body of thirty thouſand freſh ſoldiers; but then many an officer, who has no boors of his own, would ſcarcely get a ſervant for wages.

† Only Ingria muſt now furniſh recruits.

‡ Pallas, travels, tom. iii. p. 363.

§ Whether medical man, merchant, artiſt, tradeſman, coloniſt, &c.

nor any nobleman who has no eſtates, nor any man in office, furniſhes recruits; but this is not the caſe with the ruſſian merchants, who, however, pay money in lieu of it, for each recruit five hundred rubles; but all boors muſt ſerve in perſon.

Since the late empreſs abolifhed the former very inſignificant irregular ſervice of the malo-ruſſian and ſlobode Kozaks, and inſtead thereof raiſed from them regiments of complete regular cavalry, belonging moſtly to the light horſe, the army has received a conſiderable augmentation, to the benefit of the empire.

The notion that Ruſſia, from the great number of its irregular troops, has no need to keep up a ſtrong regular army, with the conſequence drawn from it, that in time of peace, for the ſake of promoting population, the levies might be diſcontinued, betrays a want of due conſideration of the ſubject. For, though in the heart of Ruſſia no apprehenſion need be entertained of an attack from a foreign enemy; and the empire on ſeveral ſides is ſufficiently protected by nature in its immenſe ſteppes, its impenetrable foreſts, and impaſſable rivers, without frontier-lines and garriſons, or ſuch attempts might be eaſily fruſtrated by a ſmall body of irregular forces*; yet it ſhould not

* In caſes of neceſſity, the country-carriers, &c. have been armed as Kozaks, and employed in garriſoning the frontiers, and other ſervice.

be

be forgotten, that ſince the military eſtabliſhment was brought into uſe by Lewis XIV. great ſtanding-armies muſt every where be kept on foot in Europe; that wiſe princes ſhould, even when in the quiet enjoyment of peace, be ever prepared for emergencies; that, as the wars which have broke out in the preſent century have ſhewn, the ruſſian army is by no means too numerous; that irregular troops, if not ſupported by regulars, are not at all times ſufficient; that there is a neceſſity not only for frontier-forts, but at all events for ſtrong places deeper within the country, to which the army may retreat in caſes of diſaſter, or from which it may be commodiouſly ſupplied with proviſion and ammunition *; that ſtationary regiments are beneficial to many of the ruſſian provinces, by promoting the ſale of the products, and bringing money into circulation †, to all which much more might be added.

* This deſerves the conſideration of thoſe who deem all fortifications uſeleſs; and that ſecurity entirely depends on a well-diſciplined and numerous army. Frontier-forts not only ſecure the provinces, but alſo keep off the enemy: to neglect having ſtrong places farther in the country, or to let them go to ruin, is like giving up the magazines and arſenals as a prey to every invader.

† Little Ruſſia, abounding in numerous products, wears a flouriſhing appearance when ſeveral regiments are quartered there; which otherwiſe finds it extremely difficult to obtain a vent for its commodities. When no troops are there the want of money is often very ſenſibly felt.

As

As even in publications of no diſtant date, and in which we might reaſonably expect juſt ſtatements, we conſtantly ſee very erroneous accounts of the ruſſian army, it ſeems a kind of duty to deliver a faithful repreſentation of it from the moſt authentic documents.

To begin then with the ſtate of the army previous to the breaking out of the laſt war againſt the Turks and Swedes; which we ſhall find in the liſt ſent by the college of war to the ſeveral regiments regarding their diſpoſition and *diſtribution. It contains at once the number of the generals appointed, and the names of all the †regiments; both ſhould here be noticed, but a ſhort abſtract will be quite ſufficient. — By that liſt it appears, that in the year 1786 the generals of the army, were as follows: three general field-marſhals, eleven generals in chief, twenty-two lieutenant-generals, fifty-four major-generals: to theſe are added, one quarter-maſter-general, when the poſt is occupied; fifteen generals of artillery, nine generals of engineers, of both as well general in chief as lieutenant-general and major-general. Beſides ſome generals appointed in the college of

* The authenticity of this liſt is not liable to the ſlighteſt doubt, being made out, not for foreigners, but for the army itſelf, coming from a high imperial college, and diſcriminating whatever it ſtates by name.

† The names of the regiments are unchangeable, as they are taken, not from their commanders, but moſtly from provinces and towns.

war, likewiſe at the war-commiſſariate and at the ſtores. — The brigadiers are not particularly ſpecified, as they act as colonels in their regiments.

The regiments which compoſed the army at that time, (among which, however, the guards, the artilleriſts, the garriſons, &c. are not reckoned,) were,

CAVALRY: five regiments of cuiraſſiers, viz. 1. The life cuiraſſiers. 2. The grand-duke's. 3. The Georgian. 4. The Kazan. 5. The Ekatarinoſlaf, afterwards generally called prince Potemkin's regiment.

Nineteen regiments of carabiniers: 1. The Riazan. 2. The Kief. 3. The Tſchernigof. 4. Perieſlavl. 5. Tver. 6. Severſk. 7. Niſhinſk. 8. Lubenſk. 9. Glukhof. 10. Starodub. 11. Sophia. 12. Roſtof. 13. Narva. 14. Kargapol. 15. Moſco. 16. Pſcove. 17. Yamburg. 18. Ingermanland. 19. Riga.

Ten regiments of dragoons, viz. 1. Smolenſk. 2. St. Peterſburg. 3. Kinburn. 4. Aſtrakhan. 5. Taganrok. 6. Niſhney-Novgorod. 7. Vladimir. 8. Orenburg. 9. Siberia. 10. Irkutſk.

Sixteen regiments of light-horſe, viz. 1. Oſtrogof. 2. Ukraine. 3. Charkhof. 4. Sumſk. 5. Aktirſk. 6. Iſumſk. 7. Voronetch. 8. Pultava. 9. Pavlogrod. 10. Mariopol. 11. Alexandrof. 12. Kherſon. 13. Elizabethgorod. 14. Olviopol. 15. Konſtantingorod. 16. Taurida.

To

To which muſt be added ſeventeen regiments or upwards of kozaks.

INFANTRY: Ten regiments of grenadiers, viz. 1. The life-grenadiers. 2. The Moſco. 3. St. Peterſburg. 4. Siberian. 5. Malo-ruſſian. 6. Ekatarinoſlaf. 7. Aſtrakhan. 8. Tauridan. 9. Kief. 10. Fanogorſk (of theſe ſome were newly raiſed).

Fifty nine regiments of muſqueteers, viz. 1. The Pſcove. 2. Riazan. 3. Veliko-luki. 4. Archangel. 5. Bielozero. 6. Narva. 7. Nefſky. 8. Kekſholm. 9. Naſcheburg. 10. Novaghinſk. 11. Sophia. 12. Tſchernigof. 13. Dnieprof. 14. Vologda. 15. Ugliz. 16. Ingermanland. 17. Smolenſk. 18. Tula. 19. Roſtof. 20. Apſcheron. 21. Novgorod. 22. Kherſon (of four battalions). 23. Caucaſus (likewiſe of four battalions). 24. Moſco. 25. Vladimir. 26. Kazan. 27. Ladoga. 28. Kabardinſk. 29. Tiflinſk. 30. Troitzka. 31. Viætka. 32. Sevaſtopol. 33. Orlof. 34. Staroſkol. 35. Koſlof. 36. Kurſk. 37. Riga. 38. Velenſk. 39. Murom. 40. Tambof. 41. Yaroſlavl. 42. Schluſſelburg. 43. Siefſk. 44. Alexiopol. 45. Brianſk. 46. Yeletzk. 47. Polotzk. 48. Voronetch. 49. Niſhney-Novgorod. 50. Niſof. 51. Azof. 52. Tobolſk. 53. Traghinſk. 54. Vyborg. 55. Perme. 56. Suſdal. 57. Reval. 58. Schirvan. 59. Vitepſk *.

* The four laſt were new raiſed.

Thirteen Yæger-corps, viz. 1. Finland. 2. Beloruſſian. 3. Livonian. 4. Bogue. 5. Taurida. 6. Caucaſus. 7. Kuban. 8. The firſt, 9. The ſecond, 10. The third, 11. The fourth, 12. The fifth, 13. The ſixth, Yæger-battalions.

Ten field-battalions, which were frequently called only battalions, viz. 1. The Ekatarinenburg. 2. The Semipalatna new raiſed battalion. 3. The firſt, 4. The ſecond, 5. The third, 6. The fourth, 7. The fifth, 8. The ſixth, and 9 and 10 the two Tſchernomorſki* battalions.

Then laſtly, the Orenburg troops and the Siberian troops; the number and diviſions whereof are not ſtated in the liſt.

The ſtate and ſtrength of the army during the laſt Turkiſh war appears from the following liſt, likewiſe drawn up by the college of war in the year 1791 †. According to which, the army at that time, in its proper eſtabliſhment ‡, contained:

INFANTRY: Ten regiments of grenadiers §, each of 3983 men; fifty-eight regiments of muſqueteers ||, eighteen each of 2044 men, 38 each of

* That is, of the Black-ſea.

† Communicated by a member of that college.

‡ That is, as it was deſigned for that war: therefore many troops appear in it which perform no ſervice in time of peace, e. gr. the Baſchkirs.

§ In ruſs they are called *grenadir*.

|| The Ruſſians call them *muſketir*.

2373 men: two of four battalions, each of 3975 men: nine battalions of yægers, each of 3900 men; in this number two tſchernomorſkian are compriſed, of which the ekatarinoſlaf yæger corps is formed; two battalions each of 975 men; twelve field-battalions each of 996 men.

CAVALRY: Three regiments of cuiraſſiers, viz. the life-regiment of 5285 men *, the grand duke's of 1080 men, and prince Potemkin's regiment of 997 men; ſixteen regiments of carabineers, each of 1051 men; ten regiments of dragoons †, each of 1808 men; the Pſcove dragoon regiment of 1889 men, to which belong five ſquadrons of huſſars making 840 men ‡: fourteen regiments of

* The whole of this uncommonly large regiment was formed by prince Potemkin out of three old cuiraſſier-regiments, to which he alſo added two regiments of light-horſe. The whole regiment, which was divided into three brigades, and thirty-ſix (or, as others ſay, in thirty-two) ſquadrons, he gave to the command of a general his relation. There was a talk as if it were again to be divided into ſeveral ſmall regiments. From the incredibly great advantages which a colonel of horſe may annually make, the chief of ſuch a regiment may be very ſoon rich if he pleaſe.

† All the dragoons wear a green uniform faced with red, and large red pantaloons.

‡ It was firſt a carabineer-regiment, but in 1789 they were turned into dragoons. It conſiſts of ten dragoon and five huſſar ſquadrons. The huſſars were partly raiſed in the laſt war. — Many of the regiments both of horſe and foot were much increaſed in the number of men by prince Potemkin.

light-horſe, each of 997 men *; two regiments of huſſars, each of 997 men †. The Kief horſe-yægers, which were drafted from ſeveral carabineer-regiments and ſquadrons, in all 1846 men.

KOZAKS: in the army in all 27,330 men. The companies formed of the inhabitants of the governments of Ekatarinoſlaf and Kharkof, under the command of lieutenant-colonel Buſin, 2578 men. Thoſe ſent to Caucaſus ‡, Khoper, 764 men, Volga 602 men. Tſchernomorſkian true Kozaks §, horſe 1275 men; foot 2475 men.; Arnaut-

* Prince Potemkin formed them out of huſſar and piqueneer regiments. It is ſaid that they are reduced to huſſars again. The Hamburgh gazette of 1792 under the head Poliſh Frontiers, mentions the great alteration taking place in the ruſſian army, by changing all the light-horſe into huſſars, and making three out of four battalions of grenadiers.

† They were firſt raiſed in the laſt war by prince Potemkin.

‡ Theſe Kozaks, by the explanation obtained from certain officers, (for the accuracy of which, however, I cannot vouch,) were ſent from the rivers Khoper and Volga to Caucaſus as coloniſts, and at the ſame time as a frontier-guard, and there ſettled. But, as on account of their performing duty, they had not quite eſtabliſhed their houſehold, they received the uſual pay as Kozaks.

§ The appellation being new, many perſons (even in the army) are not properly acquainted with the meaning of it, though it is well known to be taken from the Black-ſea. It denotes thoſe whom prince Potemkin ſelected from the formerly *true* zaporogian Kozaks, that is, they who, on the abolition of their

naut*-commandos 1419 men; volunteer cohorts 178 men; the tauridan ſix diviſions, 1600 men.

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their conſtitution, remained in the empire, or after they had emigrated ſoon returned and applied for military ſervice. In reward for their zeal and bravery during the laſt war both by ſea and land, the empreſs gave them by ukaſe, dated June 30, 1792, the iſland Phanagoria (formerly Taman,) in the diſtrict of Taurida, with the country between the river Kuban and the ſea of Azof, along the coaſt to the town of Yeiſk, and along the river to the mouth of the Laba, in fee ſimple for ever, with the order annexed that they ſhould henceforth receive their commands through the governor-general of Taurida.

* This word in ruſs is four ſyllables, and muſt be pronounced *Arna-uti*. The following account of them was communicated by a general-officer: "They are native Greeks, who, during "the laſt war, ſerved in the Archipelago. All their officers "were of their own nation. At the concluſion of the war "4000 of them came to general Barſef at Kertch and Yeni-"caly; theſe were divided into companies, but not of equal "numbers. They were afterwards ſettled in various parts as "coloniſts. Some Valakhians and Moldavians aſſociated with "them, of whom ſeveral were likewiſe diſtributed into parti-"cular companies and obtained the name of Arnauts: hence "we often hear of volokſki Arnauti and molduanſki Arnauti "(valakhian and moldavian Arnauts.) In the two laſt turkiſh "wars they were found to be of great ſervice."—It was mentioned by another officer that the proper Arnauts proved bad Kozaks on horſeback, when employed at the out-poſts; but thoſe of Moldavia and Valakhia were abſolutely cowards and often ran away. He added that many Arnauts had ſettled at Kherſon, where they enjoy ten free years, and after that period were to pay annually five kopeeks for every deſætine of land.

The corps of malo-ruſſian Kozaks and chaſſeurs formed by order of prince Potemkin 5600 men.

GARRISONS: one hundred and nine battalions amounting to 85,206 men *. Beſides theſe there are in the army diſtributed on the Dvina, five regiments of Don-kozaks each of 500 men; one Yamſchtſchiks-regiment of 1000 men †; two regiments of Baſchkirs each of 500 men; one regiment of the Meſtſcherœks of 500 men.

So far goes the liſt of the college of war. By which we ſee that the army in the laſt war, according to the report brought into the college of war, conſiſted of 334,164, but, compriſing the garriſons, of 419,370 men. To reduce it to the peace-eſtabliſhment deduct 21,200 men. — But, to that number ſtill conſiderable corps remain to be added. We ſhall juſt mention them, without adverting to the corps of cadets and military academies. — To the proper army eſtabliſhment are to be reckoned:

1. The GUARDS: which conſiſt of one regiment of horſe, uſually called the horſe-guards, and by common computation amount to 1000 men: three regiments of infantry, vulgarly called the foot-guards, and are reckoned at 10,000 men; but this number is too ſmall: one corps of cheva-

* So they are ſtated, according to the ſtaff, by the college of war; but they are not always complete.

† They were raiſed in the laſt war from the carriers of Moſco, and obliged to arm themſelves as kozaks.

liers or the chevalier-guards; which, beſides their upper and under officers, conſiſt of ſixty chevaliers, who are all officers (moſtly lieutenants,) and as ſuch inſcribed in the field-regiments: one ſquadron of life-huſſars: one ſquadron of life-kozaks.

The common ſtatement which makes all theſe guards to be about 11,300 men is erroneous; they ſhould be eſtimated at leaſt at 2500 more; for all the four regiments have a great number of ſupernumerary ſubaltern officers*, which are gradually removed from them to the army as officers.

Some of theſe regiments are occaſionally ordered to march againſt the enemy. To conclude; none of them had colonels, the empreſs herſelf being colonel of each; the lieutenant-colonels or commanders are always men of high rank, as general-field-marſhals.

2. The artillery, of which are reckoned all the troops under the command of the quarter-maſter-general. Theſe are, according to the ſtaff: one regiment of bombardiers of 2510 men; two regiments of cannoniers each of 2497 men; two regiments of fuſileers each of 2497 men; the en-

* Numbers of the young nobility are entered, particularly in the horſe-guards. Even children are admitted by favour, and receive paſſports as ſubalterns. — It is ſaid, that in future not ſo many are to be tranſplanted into the army, as thereby deſerving officers are often diſappointed in the hopes of advancement.

gineer-

gineer-corps of 1065 men; one company of miners of 296 men; one company of pioneers of 245 men; the artillery-corps and its ſchool 423 men; at the pontons are 798 men; with the artillery-horſe are 3823 men; at the laboratories of Peterſburg and Moſco 83 men, at Peterſburg beſides 286 men; in all the garriſons 8376 men; in the arſenals 1168 men. — Conſequently, in all 29,061 men.

3. Some detached corps and commandos, particularly: 1. the ſoldiers employed at the mines, gardens, &c. Including the ſoldiers in the garriſon-ſchools, who are maintained and taught at the crown's expence, and then put into the field regiments as writers, &c. the number was calculated a few years ago at 34,687. — 2. The military commandos for the ſeveral governments, which according to the number of circles conſiſt in each government of 300 to 500 men, and are actual ſoldiers either as infantry or horſe-dragoons*. As they are not always complete, we may ſet them down at about 13,000 men. — 3. The irregular troops of the lines, which inſtead of their taxes provide for the ſafety of the frontiers, ſuch as the Ural-kozaks, Baſchkirs, Tunguſes, &c. or muſt eſcort travellers, as various branches of the Don-kozaks. Their number can hardly be ſtated with accuracy; but it is very

* Among them are many ſuperannuated ſoldiers diſcharged from the marching regiments.

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conſiderable. — 4. The great multitude of horſe kept upon the coaſts and the frontiers, forming a ſort of militia, and are under their own officers or border-inſpectors. Their number amounts to ſeveral thouſands. 5. Jurats at the offices of the circles for rents and receipts, in which military perſons, particularly ſubaltern officers are taken. In the whole empire they amount to ſome hundreds.

Taking all theſe together we ſhall find them to be about 600,000 men, of whom we may reckon at leaſt 500,000 effective ſoldiers in actual ſervice. — The national militia is not here taken into the account, it having been aboliſhed, and the troops converted into marching regiments * — Whoever therefore would ſtate the force of the ruſſian army, ſhould clearly define what he has regard to in ſo doing, namely, whether he means the whole of the land-forces including the guards, the whole artillery department, the garriſons, the provincial commandos, and the irregular troops; or merely compriſes the proper field regiments, with or without the Kozaks in the field ſervice, which are indeed ſtill called irregular troops, but are

* So long ago as in the former turkiſh war, general field-marſhal count Romantzof began to make ſome regiments which came to his army about the year 1771 into field-regiments, and to give them white inſtead of green uniforms. This national militia conſiſted of fine ſtout men, chiefly odnodvortzi; in their regiments great order and decorum was obſerved, and they were richly provided with all neceſſaries.

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ſo well diſciplined that they may be uſed as trained huſſars.

A few remarks may be here put together without being very anxious in the ſelection.

Though ſome authors aſcribe but little value to the ruſſian ſoldiers, yet others have begun of late to do them juſtice, on ſeeing with aſtoniſhment the great atchievements which the ruſſian army has performed. One writer affirms that the ruſſian ſoldiers, like the invincible legions of the antient Romans, take one fortreſs after another, defeat the enemy whenever they can get ſight of them, &c. Adding, that Ruſſia alone was able to carry on a war againſt the Turks with ſuch ſucceſs; that the Ruſſian wants but little *, and that, (which however extravagantly expreſſed, under limitations contains ſome truth,) unprovided as

* It is incredible and inconceivable how the common ſoldier makes his ſmall pay and proviſion ſuffice; nay, he even accumulates a little capital, or at leaſt on holidays can afford to treat himſelf with ſtrong liquors. Not to mention that at times a commander deprives him of ſome under various pretexts. To ſatisfy all his wants he has no more than a yearly pay of ſix or ſeven rubles (in garriſon it is ſtill leſs) with his allowance of flour and grits: he buys, in the meſs, meat and greaſe or oil; clubs with ſome others to purchaſe a horſe to carry his little pack on long marches; muſt pay for every button, &c. which he happens to loſe; and buy articles of clothes when thoſe allowed him are not ſufficient: for neither his two ſhirts made of cheap linen, nor his boots, for which only forty-five kopeeks are allowed him, (and therefore cheap leather is uſed,) with a pair of ſhoes, will laſt the year through with conſtant uſe.

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he is, proceeds to Conſtantinople to provide himſelf better *. — It may therefore be aſſerted, that Ruſſia without detriment may diſpenſe with a number of ſtrong fortifications, as the army ſupplies the place of them, and is never accuſtomed to give way, if the commanders ſhew but proper courage. This may be the reaſon why ſo many fortifications which are not deemed neceſſary as tenable places on the frontiers, are not carefully kept up. However the empire has forts enough of various kinds.

Prince Potemkin introduced a great number of new regulations into the army. Among others, he ſaved the men great trouble and expence by freeing them from the neceſſity of dreſſing their hair with powder and whitening their leathers; he made them crop their hair inſtead of wearing curls; in place of the great hat, he gave them a caſque or morion, which in winter protected their head from the cold; for the long ſword of the cavalry he provided them with a ſhort ſabre, and entirely took away the ſide-arms from the infantry, leaving them only the bayonet; he exchanged the long coat for a ſort of jacket †, with

* Crantz, on various ſubjects of modern hiſtory, tom. iii. p. 124.

† The officers likewiſe at preſent wear this ſhort dreſs when on ſervice, with the long trowſers; at other times they have their former uniforms; in ſeveral regiments they have even three or four different dreſſes.

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the addition of long looſe pantaloons, &c. — Several alterations were likewiſe made in the cavalry. Each regular regiment now conſiſts of ſix ſquadrons, (formerly of ten companies,) the firſt commanded by the colonel, the ſixth by the lieutenant-colonel, the ſecond by the premier-major, the fifth by the ſenior ſecond major, the third by the ſecond ſecond-major, (not known before,) the fourth by the ſenior captain. Beſides the ſtaff, every regiment had ſix captains, twelve lieutenants, and thirteen cornets (one of whom muſt be commiſſary, i. e. receive and take care of the money and neceſſaries). Many regiments had upwards of twenty ſupernumerary captains*. Moreover, in moſt of the regiments of cavalry were likewiſe cadets, who muſt occaſionally do duty as officers, and were better treated than ſubalterns. Each ſquadron conſiſts of two companies, and each of theſe of three corporalſhips or ſixty-nine men who come in the front. Beſides theſe to each company belong a plotnik or carpenter to make the baggage-waggon and whatever elſe is wanted of wood, a ſmith, and a tzerulnik or ſhaver, all three to be conſidered and paid as common troopers. Though each ſquadron preſents only 138 horſe in front, yet on account

* This is becauſe many young ſubalterns are taken out of the guards to be made officers in the field regiments: or even becauſe not every one who is advanced can immediately find a poſt.

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of the ſubalterns, &c. they are obliged to have one hundred and fifty-five ſaddle-horſes, beſides draught horſes.

In the turkiſh war the army being obliged to act in ſeveral places at once, the troops were divided into ſo many corps, and therefore the main body of the army was ſometimes not very numerous, and yet was always victorious; what muſt we conclude but that the men are brave, and capable of any enterpriſe *. Anecdotes are related of brave and reſolute officers who acquired great renown in the two laſt wars againſt the Turks by acts of real heroiſm †; and as for the men, they were pronounced even by Frederic II. to be ex-

* We are not in general to conſider ſo much the numbers as the utility and courage of the ſoldiers, and the ſucceſs that has every where attended them, particularly in modern times. A veteran ſoldier will even frequently inſpire fortitude into a young officer. — Among a great many other anecdotes which I might quote, I ſhall mention only one of an officer of the yægers, who, defending a place in Finland in 1790, received ſixteen wounds. On his falling, two of his people helped him up and ſtood ſupporting him, ſaying, "Only command us, and we ſhall certainly conquer!" He commanded, and they kept their word. The Swedes were beat off, and the ruſſian yæger-commando maintained their poſts under their lieutenant, who was therefore made a major.

† Their names are known either by the gazettes or by the rewards they received, at leaſt in part. It is not only turkiſh and other irregular armies; they are able to beat regulars alſo, as was evinced in the ſeven-years war as well as the laſt war with the Turks.

cellent

cellent ſoldiers. The ruſſian ſoldier will not fall back one ſtep, while his commander bravely keeps his ground; he contents himſelf with an extremely little pay, and with very ſlender diet, and is always cheerful; hungry and thirſty, he traverſes the heavy ſands of the deſerts under the load of his accoutrements, without murmur or complaint*; executes every command; reckons nothing impoſſible or too difficult; does every thing that he is ordered without ſhunning any danger; and is inventive of a thouſand means for accompliſhing his deſign. What may not be performed with ſuch an army† when led on by experienced and valiant generals in whom they have confidence‡. Let the ſoldier but ſee that he is ſpared

* That is, when he ſees that the commander is not to blame for the ſcarcity. — Indeed the veteran ſoldier will hold out longer than the young recruit.

† We need only advert to the victories which a ſmall body ſometimes gained over a party of the enemy conſiſting of twice their number, in the two laſt turkiſh wars. The ſame obſervation may be made concerning the fleet. The good qualities we aſcribe to the Ruſſian lie in his national character as being proper to the whole nation. It is ſomewhat ſurpriſing that perſons who cannot deny them to the ruſſian ſoldiers, (and likewiſe to the boors,) yet pretend that they proceed either from their vaſſalage or their inherent ſtupidity: the Don-kozak is no vaſſal, and yet is brave; the ruſſian boor is indeed a vaſſal, but he is any thing leſs than ſtupid: he is extremely artful and cunning, and fitted by nature for every thing.

‡ Peter I. knew his countrymen, when he ſaid after ſuffering many

ſpared as much as poſſible, he attaches himſelf with all his ſoul to his commander*, and performs almoſt miracles. — Well might the † empreſs denominate the Ruſſians an obedient, brave, intrepid, enterpriſing, and powerful people.

The opinion generally adopted, that Peter I. was the firſt who took foreign officers into his ſervice, and raiſed regular regiments by their means, is unfounded; perhaps alſo the addition, that he learned the manual exerciſe in the firſt formed company; for, without mentioning the ſtrelitzes, which had been eſtabliſhed long before him as a ſort of regular militia in continual ſervice, but which he for weighty reaſons aboliſhed, his father had already cauſed ſeveral, perfectly regular regi-

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many loſſes, that this army would ſoon learn to beat Charles XII. at firſt the attack of a diſciplined regular enemy was a ſtrange thing to them.

* In the turkiſh war of 1770, general Proſoroffky allowed his corps to appear without hair powder and without whitening their leathers: by this indulgence he won the hearts of his ſoldiers. — Prince Potemkin, ſome few years ſince, diſcarded throughout the army, not only a part of their heavy arms, for inſtance, the paſſaſh of the infantry, but alſo the inconvenient narrow coat, the hair-dreſſing which was ſuch a heavy loſs on their time and their ſleep, and which cauſed an unneceſſary expence in powder, with other inconveniences; and all the world knows how the ſoldiers were attached to him with heartfelt gratitude.

† In her letter of grace to the nobility in 1785.

ments, to be formed by foreign officers, which were ſtationed not at Moſco but at Tula: among theſe were particularly Engliſhmen and Scotſmen. In the archives of the college of war are preſerved the liſts of them and their pay *. Theſe officers might put a regiment on the foreign footing; but it was not by their doing that the ruſſian ſoldier had thoſe good qualities juſt mentioned, and which form a part of the national character. On the other hand Peter I. was the creator of his army, not by having formed ſome regular regiments, but by conſtituting it purely of ſuch, with the exception of the irregular troops ſtill in being, and by introducing the raiſing of recruits and the head-money inſtead of the former practice of making the nobles and their ſerfs do ſervice in the camp †. — Ever ſince his time, every German, without

* Two regiments, one of cavalry and another of infantry, were commanded by a Scotſman as colonel, and having a ſtaff's company in each of them; he received four times the uſual pay.

† Many little anecdotes are related of what happened on this occaſion, moſt of them perhaps the invention of an idle moment, or at leaſt much exaggerated; but, ſuppoſing they were true, they excite neither laughter nor ſurpriſe, as, on the introduction of foreign cuſtoms, the like might have happened in any country. — According to one of them, at that time a certain boyar thought a major-general ſuperior to a lieutenant-general, and in making out the patent, in the emperor's abſence, committed a miſtake. Of another we are told, that, inſtead of giving an officer the reprimand, or putting him under arreſt, as he was bid, he ordered him to have the battogues (i. e. to be beaten with

without regard to birth, upon proper behaviour is gradually advanced, and becomes an * officer. However, the late empreſs granted conſiderable privileges by ukaſe to the nobility. A young man of burgher condition muſt have performed twelve years of good ſervice before he is made an officer, (particularly good conduct produces exceptions to this rule). Accordingly, whoever enters the military ſervice, whether in the guards or in marching regiments, if he would get early promotion muſt bring proof of his noble deſcent. — As the nobility by this means are rapidly advanced, we ſee in the marching regiments a number of young officers, particularly from the guards, who, after having ſerved or been enliſted ſome years, have

with ſticks); but general Ogilvie, an Engliſhman, who had come from the auſtrian ſervice, drew up the articles of war, became the only lieutenant field-marſhal in the ruſſian army, and laſtly went back to Auſtria, was ſo incenſed at this behaviour, that he threatened, with all the foreign officers, to quit the ſervice unleſs the aggrieved officer was honourably diſcharged, and compenſated in ſome way or other for the inſult he had received. As the boyar knew that ſubalterns even of noble birth might be corporally puniſhed with beating, (which was only aboliſhed by the late empreſs in the year 1775,) he might be led into the miſtake that ſuch puniſhment was proper for the offending officer.

* Even under-officers, who by birth were vaſſal-boors, may by good behaviour riſe to be officers.

been removed thither *. Nevertheleſs there are perſons enough who have grown grey under arms, or ſometimes, eſpecially in profound peace, remain long in the ſame poſt †. — Some were apprehenſive that the army would loſe many good officers by the introduction of the new mode of governing the provinces; becauſe poſts in the civil department are attended with more convenience and a better ſalary. But it occaſioned no defect in the army; nay, many regiments, previous to the breaking out of the laſt war, had ſeveral ſupernumerary ſtaff-officers as well as others.

During and ſoon after the war of 1770 the late empreſs thought good to make ſeveral regulations in the army. Among others ſhe ordered that all the heavy cavalry ſhould have their own chief, namely, the general field-marſhal count Romantzof; as well as the light-horſe, theirs in the perſon of the general field-marſhal prince Potemkin. Farther, that ſome perſonages, become famous for great exploits, ſhould have honourable ſur-

* It was long a practice for young noblemen, eſpecially Livonians, &c. to procure patents as poliſh officers, and then to enter the ruſſian ſervice as officers, without having ſerved; but Catharine II. reformed this abuſe.

† This was particularly the caſe before the laſt turkiſh war, in the heavy cavalry; which made promotion very ſlow in coming.

names annexed to thoſe of their family, as, Romantzof-Zadunaiſky, Potemkin-Tavritſcheſky, Suvarof-Rymnikſky; as alſo, that ſome, as a particular mark of favour, ſhould have a peculiar regiment, though under the former reigns, no general* had ever received the like. To this muſt be eſpecially added, that prince Potemkin was appointed general inſpector of the whole army, to whom ſeveral ſub-inſpectors were added. He put a ſtop to numberleſs diſorders, abuſes, and uſurpations, which had crept into ſome regiments, and called ſeveral negligent or rapacious commanders to a ſevere account.

By the entirely new arrangement adopted for the army in 1764, the colonels acquired much more authority than before, and at the ſame time the opportunity for making conſiderable advantage, eſpecially in the cavalry†. Some people expreſſed great ſurpriſe at this; but without reaſon, for the colonels were ſtill under the ſame

* The empreſs Elizabeth in the ſeven-years-war gave a company the name of the Schuvalof-corps. — The regiments formerly never took their names from a general, but always from a town or province. Latterly ſome exceptions have been made to this rule.

† This was done by the purchaſe of horſes, forage, and other neceſſaries, particularly when the cavalry were not completely mounted. — However, theſe are matters with which we have nothing to do. We ſhall only juſt mention, that many had rather always remain colonels than be appointed generals, as in that caſe they loſe their regiment. Only brigadiers remain as colonels with their regiments.

reſponſibility as before; and the crown which had been formerly obliged to pay very dear for many of the neceſſaries belonging to the regiments, ſaved great ſums of money by the new regulation. — Under the empreſs Elizabeth many young colonels, who had intereſt at court, frequently got a great deal by it, or allowed their ſoldiers all manner of licence. Previous to the ſeven-years-war four regiments were particularly notorious, and particular towns were terrified on hearing that either of them were to be quartered there, and would raiſe a ſum of money to be free from ſuch gueſts. In the late reign none of theſe diſorders happened, as the empreſs was extremely anxious and took care to provide that the ſubjects ſhould neither be moleſted in their houſes nor their buſineſs by the quartering of ſoldiers, and which ſhe cauſed to be expreſsly inculcated in the articles of war.

In general it may be affirmed, that no army in Europe proportionately coſts ſo little as the ruſſian *, and that no ſoldier in Europe can ſubſiſt on

* The firſt equipment of a dragoon coſts ſeventeen rubles 45 1/8 kopeeks, and afterwards yearly ſeven rubles 29 7/10 kopeeks. However, for the firſt, ſome articles furniſhed from the commiſſariat are not included, ſuch as ſaddle, bridle, &c. nor horſe, forage, ſtanding, and keep. — Concerning the pay of the officers, it muſt be obſerved, 1. that the officers of the garriſon-regiments in the towns of the Baltic have double the pay of other garriſon-regiments; 2. that the officers of all marching regiments have three times the pay of the officers of the regiments

on ſo little pay as the ruſſian. For, what other european ſoldier will ſubſiſt on an annual pay not amounting to more than ſeven or eight rubles, or when in garriſon only half that ſum, and the allowance

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ments in the provinces; 3. that the private men in the guards have double the pay of thoſe in the marching regiments.

A general field-marſhal is allowed per annum ſeven thouſand rubles, two hundred rations, valued at 1140 rubles, and ſixteen denſhiks or ſervants.

	Rubles.	Rations.		Rubles.	Denſh.
A general in chief - -	3600	80	=	456	12
A lieutenant-general -	2160	50	=	285	10
A major-general - -	1800	40	=	228	8
A brigadier - - -	840	20	=	171	7

In the marching regiments a colonel is allowed yearly ſix hundred rubles, for rations ninety-ſix rubles ninety kopeeks, and ſix denſhiks or ſervants.

	Rubles.		Rubles	Kop.	Denſh.
A lieutenant-colonel	360.	For rations,	62	70	4
A major - -	300.	——	62	70	3
A captain - -	180.	——	28	50	2
A lieutenant - -	120.	——	22	80	1
A ſecond lieutenant -	84.	——	17	10	1
An enſign - -	84.	——	17	10	1
A quarter maſter of a regiment - -	84.	——	22	80	1
An adjutant - -	120.	——	22	80	1

From this table, and the paragraph immediately preceding it, we may find out the pay of the officers belonging to the regiments in the garriſons and governments. — A private man is allowed yearly ten rubles ninety-eight kopeeks, beſides three barrels of meal, a certain quantity of griſt or coarſe oatmeal, twenty-four pounds of ſalt, and fleſh to the value of ſeventy-two

lowance of grits and flour, weighed out to him with the utmoſt nicety? — The annual expenditure for the ſupport of the army will be touched upon occaſionally in the following ſection.

SECTION II.

Of the Navy.

RUSSIA is poſſeſſed of ſeveral fleets, entirely diſtinct from each other. She has one in the Baltic, and another in the Euxine: the former under the admiralty of St. Peterſburg; but not the latter, which, therefore, cannot in any point of view be conſidered as only a diviſion of the other; and by an eſpecial ukaſe, on account of its diſtance, has its own high-admiral, who was prince Potemkin. To theſe muſt be added a third, the galley-fleet, whoſe chief was the prince of Naſſau-Siegen, but immediately under the empreſs. — All the three fleets were in actual ſervice during the laſt war.

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kopeeks: all theſe articles are computed at five rubles ſeventy-four kopeeks. But ſix rubles thirty-five kopeeks are deducted from the pay of every private man for clothing, medicines, fleſh, cartridges, and repairing of firelocks. His whole clothing from head to foot coſts near twelve rubles. — The denſhiks are taken out of the recruits to attend on the officers: and for the ſupport of every one of theſe, eleven rix dollars and two and a half kopeeks are paid annually out of the military cheſt; but the maſters are obliged to clothe them.

The

The emperor Peter I. was creator of the ruſſian fleet. Before his reign the Ruſſians had, indeed, ſmall veſſels for mercantile or tranſport ſervice, which they navigated along the coaſts and on the rivers; but they were ſuch wretched things as we ſtill ſee in ſome places on the rivers between Kola and Archangel, &c. no iron is uſed in their conſtruction, not even a ſingle nail. Armed veſſels, much leſs ſhips of war, were at that time not known in Ruſſia. But that great monarch travelled into foreign countries for the ſake of learning a better method of building ſhips, and of introducing it into his empire. He raiſed a maritime force *, and cauſed a ſet of regulations to be printed for the eſtabliſhment of a navy. Since his deceaſe the government has not always beſtowed the ſame degree of attention on the fleet.

In the year 1741 it conſiſted of twenty-three ſhips of the line, nine frigates, three bomb-ketches, ſeven prames, and eighty new-built gallies.

In 1757 they could only count twenty-one line of battle ſhips, (ſome of which were in very bad condition,) ſix frigates, two bomb-ketches, two prames, two fire-ſhips, and ninety gallies. — The crews for the whole fleet, including the gallies, were computed at 20,239 men, which, however, (as uſual,) were not complete.

* Mr. Coxe is of opinion, that the ſeas belonging to the empire produced the fleet, though not ſufficient exerciſe for the ſailors: but experience has ſhewn this to be a miſtake.

In

In the year 1781 they had thirty-four ſhips of war, but their number was to be increaſed to fifty-four *. Whether ſo many firſt-rates, without the frigates, were always kept up in time of peace; alſo whether at the commencement of the laſt war (as ſome were frequently laid by as old and unfit for ſervice) ſo many were actually in being for the Baltic, I cannot determine. That Ruſſia had conſiderable fleets, forming together a very reſpectable naval force, every one knows from the ſeveral actions that have taken place in the Baltic and in the Black ſea, or may be ſeen from the following curſory view †.

The BALTIC FLEET, at the breaking out of the war in 1788, was of ſtrength ſufficient to defeat the aims of the ſwediſh navy, by coming off victorious in an engagement. The force off Hochland conſiſted of thirty ſail, whereof ſeventeen were of the line, (one of a hundred and eight guns, the reſt of ſeventy-four and ſixty-four,) together carrying 1228 cannons, and ſeven large frigates. But at that time ſome men of war had ſailed to Copenhagen, and ſix lay at Archangel nearly ready for ſea. Accordingly, we muſt

* The ſame author mentions them to have had in the year 1778 thirty-eight ſhips of the line, fifteen frigates, four prames, and one hundred and nine gallies.

† It will not be deemed ſuperfluous, as no book that I know of delivers a ſatisfactory account of the ruſſian navy.

not

not limit the whole fleet to that number *; beſides, all the ſhips were not ſent out.

On their appearing at ſea again in the following year 1789 they were ſtated by ſome to conſiſt of thirty-three line of battle ſhips, without reckoning thoſe which went to the galley fleet under vice-admiral Kruſe: for, at the ſea fight (if the mere cannonading of ſome ſhips may be ſo called) the ruſſian fleet, according to their own account, conſiſted of twenty ſhips of the line, with ſome frigates and ſmaller veſſels; others ſpoke of twenty-two firſt-rates and ſix frigates. Preſently afterwards they were conſiderably reinforced by the coming up of the afore-mentioned ſhips from Kiœger bay.

But they were all this while at work in the yards of Cronſtadt, Peterſburg, and Archangel, in making a conſiderable addition to the fleet. For it is well known that from autumn 1788 to the ſummer of 1789, at Peterſburg and Cronſtadt the following men of war were built: three of a hundred guns, four other ſhips of the line, (all of oak and ſheathed with copper,) three chebecks of thirty-ſix guns, ſix ſchooners of twenty-

* Gatterer, in his Abriſs der Geographie, p. 326, where he probably means only the Baltic fleet, ſets it down at thirty or forty ſhips of the line, and in all about one hundred and eighty ſail.

eight

eight guns, with ſeveral gallies* and gun-boats. But at the concluſion of the year 1789 twenty ſhips of war quite new lay ready at † Archangel. Without theſe the fleet at ſea on the 26th of May 1790 conſiſted of thirty ſhips of the line and eighteen frigates.

The FLEET IN THE BLACK SEA was already very conſiderable when the late empreſs was at Taurida, ſo as to excite in her a very agreeable ſurpriſe. — In the year 1787 it conſiſted of about eighteen ſhips of the line, that is, twelve at Sevaſtopol and ſix at Kherſon ‡, of twenty-four frigates, ſix gun-boats, and a great number of tranſports. In 1789 the fleet in actual ſervice was eleven line of battle ſhips and ſeveral large frigates. In 1790 it is mentioned in the Hamburgh gazette as compoſed of twelve men of war of the line, a great number of frigates, gallies, chebecks, and gun-boats, with two hundred flat-

* Some of the journals affirmed, that almoſt all the gallies were new-built; but they were wrongly informed, as ſeveral of the old were retained for ſervice.

† This is ſtated on the authority of a ſea-officer of great credibility, who was at Archangel in the year 1789, and frequently kept watch on board thoſe new ſhips. — Perhaps it might be for want of timber that they were not already in the Baltic.

‡ It is well known that ſuch large ſhips of war can neither be built nor employed there as in the Baltic, from the want of ſufficient depth of water in many places.

bottomed

bottomed veſſels. — The fleet in the Liman was compoſed of thirty-five ſail in the year 1788, but on account of the ſhallows there had no large ſhips.

In the Archipelago there were only three ſhips in the year 1789, namely one frigate of thirty-ſix guns, another of twenty, and one chebeck of fifteen.

But Ruſſia has alſo raiſed a flotilla on the Bogue and on the Dniepr, not far from Bender. At the end of the year 1789 it conſiſted already of forty ſchooners, of ſix to twelve guns; but in the ſpring of 1790 they were a hundred complete.

The GALLEY FLEET came into notice again by the ſea fight in the year 1789. — Peter I. had made uſe of this fleet in his war againſt Sweden, as did afterwards the empreſs Elizabeth on a like occaſion. — That in the ſummer of 1789 it did not conſiſt entirely of new gallies, but that ſeveral of the old were retained for ſervice* has been already mentioned. In the engagement of the $\frac{9}{10}$th of Auguſt, the number of all the veſſels belonging to this fleet, great and ſmall, was reported at a hundred and ten, which was pretty near the truth; for, by the account of an officer, who was then on board the fleet, the frigates, gallies, gun-boats, &c. all together were one hun-

* Some were found to be utterly unſerviceable, and ſent back to St. Peterſburg.

dred

dred and four; though, for various reaſons, all were not in the engagement, and therefore the victory ought not to be aſcribed to the ſuperiority of numbers. Beſides, the ſwediſh fleet had taken a very advantageous poſition among the iſlands, and blocked up the paſſage where they apprehended an attack. On which account it cauſed the ruſſian fleet ſo much trouble to come at them: however, they ſurmounted all difficulties, and gained the well-known deciſive victory *. In the year following, 1790, they appeared in much greater force at ſea.

The admiralty is at Peterſburg, with a high admiral at its head, which place was held by the grand duke for many years. As an imperial college it belongs to a following article. — That the fleet in the Euxine or Black ſea is not under its cognizance has been already remarked.

The Baltic fleet in the year 1789, beſides its high admiral and ſome other officers of eminence, had one admiral, (in 1786 there were three,) four vice-admirals, and five contre-admirals; amongſt

* Had the plan ſucceeded to its full extent, ſcarcely one ſhip belonging to the Swedes would have eſcaped. The attack was begun with impetuoſity from behind, in order to force the paſſage that had been blocked up, which was likewiſe ſucceſsfully accompliſhed. A ſlighter attack was to have been made in front, where, as the Swedes had left there an open paſſage, they would have been cut off from all means of ſaving themſelves by flight. The latter met with ſome impediments that have never yet been ſpecified or explained.

whom

whom ſuch admirals and vice-admirals are not compriſed as were appointed to the galley-haven, the marine-cadet-corps, or as general pay-maſters, general-commiſſaries at war, &c.

To inſert the regulation of Peter I. relating to the rank and pay of the admirals and officers, &c. of his fleet, with all the alterations it has hitherto undergone, would only ſwell our pages without being of any utility. A few ſhort notices will amply ſuffice. In regard to rank:

The high admiral has the rank and pay of a general field-marſhal in the army. An admiral has thoſe of a general in chief. A vice-admiral thoſe of a lieutenant-general. A contre-admiral thoſe of a major-general.

The captains in the navy were divided by Peter I. into three claſſes: to thoſe of the firſt claſs he gave the rank of colonel; to thoſe of the ſecond, the rank of lieutenant-colonel; and to thoſe of the third claſs that of major. There were ſtill the captain-commanders, to whom he aſſigned the rank of a brigadier. At preſent we never hear of a captain of the third claſs; the rank is allotted as follows:

The captain-commander has the rank of a brigadier in the army. The captain of the firſt claſs the rank of a colonel. The captain of the ſecond claſs that of a lieutenant-colonel. The captain-lieutenant that of a premier-major. The lieute-

lieutenant has the rank of a captain in the army, and the midſhipman that of a lieutenant.

The firſt captain ſometimes gets the rank of a major-general, without being therefore raiſed to a contre-admiral, as was the caſe with our countryman Mr. Gibbs, who ſtands in the liſts as "captain of the fleet with the rank of major-general," with ſome others, as Melnikof, Odintzof, &c.

The pay of the general-admiral or high admiral per annum is ſeven thouſand rubles. That of an admiral three thouſand ſix hundred; a vice-admiral two thouſand one hundred and ſixty; a contre-admiral one thouſand eight hundred; a captain-commander eight hundred and forty; a lieutenant two hundred, and a midſhipman one hundred and twenty rubles. — It is here to be remarked, that the officers are alſo allowed denſchiks*, or ſervants, namely, a lieutenant two, and the reſt in proportion. Likewiſe when they are at ſea the officers are allowed table-money, viz. in the Baltic each officer monthly ſeven rubles, and the captain ſomewhat more. On long

* It has before been mentioned that theſe ſervants are taken from the recruits. When the government is apprehenſive of burdening too much the empire by frequent and numerous levies, the naval officer ſometimes muſt be content with fewer, and even with no denſchiki at all.

voyages

voyages this allowance is increaſed *. — Formerly every captain was preſented by the crown with a ſervice of ſilver-plate; but this cuſtom has been long left off.

It ſcarcely need be mentioned, that the officers not only take precedence according to their rank, but whenever that is equal, it is ſettled by ſeniority †. Thus, for inſtance, eſpecially on board of large ſhips where there are ſeveral lieutenants together, the elder may give orders to the younger. — A captain-lieutenant can only have the command of a frigate. — On board of ſhip the navy-officer has the command over the land-officer, even in caſes where the latter is of higher rank ‡.

The ſailors are divided into two claſſes: to the firſt belong the experienced, at eighteen rubles per annum each; but thoſe of the ſecond claſs

* In the Archipelago, if I am not miſtaken, in the turkiſh war of 1770, the monthly allowance was twelve rubles.

† He that is older in the ſervice cannot without affront be ordered by a younger, but when they come together the latter muſt reſign the command to the former.

‡ Some officers of the army unacquainted with this, and what is more, ſome officers of the guards, who were on board the galley-fleet in the year 1789, expreſſed at firſt great aſtoniſhment and took umbrage at it. The latter, particularly, thought that nobody but the empreſs could put them under arreſt. But an order ſoon came from court that taught them better.

have only twelve. It is, however, lately affirmed, that the tertial * of each of the firſt claſs is only three rubles ſixty kopeeks, and that thoſe of the ſecond receive no more than two rubles fifty kopeeks, which amounts annually for the firſt to ten rubles thirty kopeeks, and for the latter to ſeven rubles fifty kopeeks †. Moreover, they are fed while at ſea; but when on ſhore each receives his ordinary proviſion, as in the land ſervice. — The ſailors are not left without hopes of promotion, as the ſeveral offices and poſts about the ſhip are conferred upon them according to their good behaviour. Any one who knows how to write has a chance of being advanced to be ſkipper, in which capacity he has the care of the ſails, cordage, &c. and at the ſame time is raiſed to the rank of a captain in the army, (but never higher,) and yet remains ſkipper as before. — The children

* Inſtead of quarterly payments, as uſual in England, all officers and placemen in Ruſſia, whether civil, military, naval, or eccleſiaſtical, receive their pay by tertials, that is, at three ſtated times in the year.

† This account is from the mouth of a very credible naval officer; but, as it has been advanced by ſome travellers, that the ſailors receive fifteen rubles monthly, it muſt be obſerved, that this ought not to be underſtood of the ordinary pay; only ſome free people, who came and offered themſelves to ſerve on board the galley-fleet, received monthly from eight to fifteen rubles. Even the turkiſh priſoners, who were in Peterſburg, tempted by this great pay, offered to ſerve in the galley-fleet.

of

of the ſailors and marines are kept at ſchool, and at length promoted to ſteerſmen, with which they likewiſe may have the rank of captain in the army, but without, therefore, laying down the poſt of a ſteerſman. — To a ſhip of one hundred guns the crew is uſually reckoned at one thouſand men, in which are included ſailors, marines, (who are commonly called battalions,) and the engineers *. But the crews are not always complete.

The harbours for the fleet have been already mentioned, nothing more therefore need here be ſaid of them. — The expence attending the maintenance of the navy was formerly eſtimated at about a million two hundred thouſand rubles: in regard to which we are to conſider that many articles are very cheap in Ruſſia, and that the crews are paid much leſs wages than in other countries, particularly in England. At preſent, as a greater number of fleets are kept up, and as they conſiſt of far more ſhips than formerly, the coſt muſt be exceedingly increaſed.

Ruſſia had formerly no more than two dock-yards, thoſe of Peterſburg and Archangel, to which have latterly been added thoſe of Kherſon,

* The ſwediſh officers who were taken priſoners in the year 1790, confeſſed that the ruſſian fleet had excellent artillery. Their own fleet was in want of artilleriſts; and therefore their cannon did far leſs injury than the ruſſian.

Cronſtadt, and Taurida. The ſhip-yard at Kherſon was abſolutely neceſſary while there was no better place at which to build ſhips for the Euxine: but the ſituation is rather inconvenient, not only becauſe timber there muſt be procured at a very high price, but alſo chiefly becauſe large ſhips cannot without difficulty be brought acroſs the Liman; for which purpoſe they muſt be entirely unloaded and diſmaſted. The harbours of Taurida afford far more commodious places for dock-yards.

At Peterſburg and Cronſtadt the men of war are conſtructed of oak, tranſported thither from the regions of Kazan at a great expence. Indeed, in ſeveral diſtricts much nearer ſingle oak-trees are found; in Lettland and in Eſthonia, particularly in the circle of Hapſal, even oak-foreſts, but they are ſmall, whereas thoſe of Kazan and Voronetch are of pretty large growth. Tzar Peter I. ordered them to be carefully ſpared and encouraged for the purpoſes of ſhip-building. Accordingly foreſters were appointed, who had diſcharged ſoldiers under them: but theſe people were a great plague to the inhabitants, and committed all manner of exceſſes amongſt them*;

* For inſtance, they threw oak-boughs into the court-yards of the Tartars, and then accuſed them of having cut down oaks; or bones of pork, and charged them with having kept hogs, which is prohibited by the mohammedan religion, &c.

for

for which reaſon they were aboliſhed in the year 1762*. However, every land-owner is careful of his oaks, as he can always get a good price for them. In Peterſburg every pood of oak-timber, including the expence of tranſport, ſells for fifteen to twenty-five kopeeks.

At Archangel the ſhips are built of the wood of the larch-tree†, which is very cheap; a quantity ſufficient for the conſtruction of a ſhip of ſixty guns coſts there, if purchaſed with integrity and caution, about three thouſand rubles, and perhaps ſomewhat more. But for particular parts of the veſſel oak-timber is uſed, which is alſo brought thither from the precincts of Kazan‡.

Though oak-timber is ſo dear at Peterſburg, yet twenty years ago enough for a ſhip of eighty

* Buſching, in the earlier editions of his Geography, mentions a foreſter ſtill in 1770 in the diſtrict of Kazan; it is poſſible that there might be one, but the office was aboliſhed in 1762.

† Some german writers are of opinion that if the larch afford not better timber than the oak, it is at leaſt as good; this I leave undecided, but I doubt it very much. At times the fir is uſed with the larch in conſiderable quantities.

‡ Mr. Buſching, in the laſt edition of his Geography, commits a ſlight miſtake in ſaying that at Archangel the ſhips are built of the oak-timber growing there. No oaks at all grow there, as I have been uniformly told by officers belonging to the yard, as well as by our worthy countryman the late Mr. Yeames, who was maſter-ſhip-builder there for many years.

guns might be had for only about ten thouſand rubles; and the fir-timber for a light veſſel (ketch, pink, or yacht) capable of carrying from twenty to thirty cannons, about nine hundred rubles. However, from the great conſumption of it ſince, waſte, neglect, and other cauſes, the price of it now is greatly raiſed; the timbers for one of theſe light veſſels can perhaps hardly be got by the crown for two thouſand rubles. A half-chebeck completely finiſhed coſts it now about twelve thouſand; but a ſhip of the line of one hundred guns fully equipped, at leaſt one hundred thouſand rubles*, or even more.

It

* This, however, is only to be underſtood of the laſt war: formerly every thing was much cheaper, as the crown employed its own people as workmen; but ſince, by reaſon of the great increaſe of buſineſs, it is obliged to hire ſtrangers, who, according to their capacities receive wages unheard of at the yards there. It was well known however, and the empreſs knew it herſelf, that great impoſitions were practiſed in making the contracts, and in many other particulars. It was this that occaſioned admiral ſir Charles Knowles, while he was in that country to tell her majeſty, that the expence and waſte was ſuch, that if her whole empire was made of wood, the people at the yards would find means to conſume it all and ruin her exchequer beſides; adding, that he would engage to fetch all the materials for ſhip-building from Ruſſia, pay the duties upon them, and deliver to her from England ſhips completely equipped at much leſs coſt than they ſtood her in at her own dock-yards. — Among other rumours it was ſaid that a certain chancery had formerly given in a report that the ſtores in the maga-

It has been more than once obſerved by former writers, that the oak-timber of Ruſſia and of the north, in general, is not ſo durable as in other countries. This however is not aſſented to by others, who affirm that probably negligence and want of attention, in concurrence with the freſh water of the Neva, may greatly contribute to a premature corruption *; for they aſſert it to be a well-known fact, that if oak-timber be felled with due precaution and at the proper ſeaſon, then ſet

magazines were ſpoilt; having received the wiſhed-for order to ſell them all to the public, certain perſons of that office, by means of their confidents, bought all the beſt at a very low price; then, by a podrad (contract) with the ſame chancery, ſtruck a bargain for new deliveries, and ſent back to the magazines the very materials at a very high price which they had declared to be ſpoilt. — Of numberleſs impoſitions of the ſame nature Catharine II. had too much ſagacity not to be aware; but ſhe did not know rightly how to help herſelf; ſhe conſidered them as things of a like nature have been conſidered in other countries, as the cheeſe-parings and candle-ends of a great buttery. — Many a cable and many an anchor have been loſt and ſupplied in the firſt port after leaving Cronſtadt in a favouring breeze, and many a ſuit of ſails has been blown away in extremely fine weather.

* They think particularly that ſome of the fault may lie in the choice of the timber and in the working it up; the latter is done perhaps too haſtily and without proper inſpection: the former being delivered by podrad, the ſeller very eaſily finds means for hood-winking the receiver. It has not unfrequently happened that ſhips immediately after the launch have been pronounced unſerviceable.

to dry in the ſhade and under cover, and laſtly laid for a time in ſalt-water to ſoak, it acquires its due degree of durability. The admiralty has not been inattentive to this important object, by propoſing a premium to the beſt literary productions upon it *. The freſh-water † cannot poſſibly be avoided while Cronſtadt is the only ſafe and ſpacious harbour for the fleet. Were ‡ Roggervyk in Eſthonia put into a proper condition it would no longer need to lie in freſh-water. — Some think it probable that at Reval § a better harbour than that of Cronſtadt might be had, in regard to the water, if only half the money were to be laid out

* One of theſe was obtained by paſtor Graſſman in the year 1779 for his diſſertation on the long duration of ſhip-timber; on which ſubject he publiſhed a larger work in 1790.

† Admiral Knowles ſaid that the freſh-water of the Neva was leſs injurious to the ſhips than a number of ſalt-water tricks that he could mention.

‡ The unſurmountable obſtacles which the late empreſs met with in the proſecution of this grand and expenſive undertaking, made her reſolve on abandoning the project in the year 1788.

§ It was rumoured at St. Peterſburg that propoſals had been made for enlarging the harbour at Reval. Undoubtedly it might be enlarged, and at no very enormous expence: but the queſtion is, whether it would afford a proper ſecurity againſt ſtorms. There is one difficulty at Reval as well as at Cronſtadt, that the ſea in the ſpring is rather late in being freed from ice. This prevents the ſhips from running out early. The caſe is very different at Roggervyk.

upon

upon it that has been expended at Roggervyk. — Perhaps it would be poſſible to make a good harbour in the bay towards Vyborg.

In regard to the ſhip-yards it remains to be mentioned, that the ſhips at Peterſburg and Archangel are built in docks, and then launched from the ſtocks, by which method a ſhip is liable to ſuffer great damage *; whereas at Cronſtadt, when the ſhip is ready, water is let into the canal, and it floats out without any poſſibility of hurt. — The dock-yards at Archangel are not in the town, but at five verſts diſtance from it on an iſland in the Dvina, named Solombol †, pretty large and inhabited by people that belong to the yards; but all the houſes are of timber, though two ſtories high, on account of the frequent inundations to which it is ſubject in the ſpring. Oppoſite to it, on the other ſide of the river, dwell the pilots. Ships that are ready, and yet are not immediately ordered to ſea, as it would be impoſſible for them to winter in the river on account of the current of ice at its breaking up, are conducted thirty verſts higher up, where they have a ſort of har-

* This happened not many years ſince to a frigate at Archangel, as ſhe was launching ſhe broke her back and then beat in one of her bows by running againſt the pier, ſo that ſhe was obliged to undergo a thorough repair.

† Buſching calls it Solombal, and not an iſland, but a part of the town of Archangel. A very trifling error, only juſt worth this notice.

bour

bour between the iſlands *. There is a kind of fort with a garriſon; but without that, its ſituation, and the parts adjacent, and the nature of the channel, render it ſecure enough againſt any hoſtile attempts. At this place too always lie a great number of tranſport-veſſels, for carrying cannon, ſtores, proviſions, &c. to the men of war, when they are to be fitted out for ſea, from the magazines at Archangel. The complete equipment, however, cannot be done there, nor nearer than ſeventy verſts from Solombol, in the diſtrict where the light-houſe ſtands. To that place the ſhip muſt be conducted by pilots, becauſe the proper channel, notwithſtanding the breadth of the river, is extremely narrow and abounds in ſhoals; and there is particularly a large ſand-bank which requires very nice management. All things conſidered therefore the conſtruction and equipment of men of war are here attended with many inconveniences; to which is ſtill to be added, that by the inundations which occaſionally ariſe on the iſland many of the materials and ſtores are carried away and loſt, or great damages are otherwiſe ſuſtained by the crown — But how different from all this is Cronſtadt †.

Though Ruſſia has always had a fleet throughout the preſent century, yet whether from want of

* Probably this is the place which Buſchin calls Lapominka.

† Of which we have given a ſufficient deſcription already in our firſt volume.

opportunity

opportunity or want of management, it never diſplayed its force and conſequence under any of the former reigns *. But the navy under Catharine II. in the two laſt wars againſt the Turks and in that againſt the Swedes, manifeſted to the world what it could do, and with what brave people it was manned. The conceit that they were not trained till the war of 1770, is confuted by the tranſactions of that period. For the ruſſian fleet did not then gradually learn to gain a battle, but ſet out at once by defeating an enemy with a far greater number of ſhips, and ſhortly afterwards annihilated his navy †. The fleet with oars was not indeed brought out in the former of the two turkiſh wars, and yet was able to bid defiance to Sweden in regard to experienced ſeamen.

* It has been affirmed by eye-witneſſes, who ſerved in the war of Finland, in the reign of the empreſs Elizabeth, that the galley-fleet was at that time very inactive againſt the Swedes, frequently being at a loſs to know what to do, retreating ſometimes with timidity, and cautiouſly avoiding all poſſibility of coming to an engagement; till general Keith bore down amongſt them and brought them into order. To which they added, that many of the officers betrayed the moſt conſummate ignorance in maritime affairs.

† The notion that foreign officers have had the greater ſhare in every ſignal tranſaction is nothing to the purpoſe: for they have never been commanders in chief; and even if that had been the caſe they could have done but little if the fleet were in bad condition. As they were navigating ſeas where the ruſſian flag had never before been diſplayed, it was ſurely neceſſary to provide themſelves with foreign officers who were acquainted with thoſe ſeas.

As the empreſs, even in the midſt of peace, was always building new ſhips of war at various places, which only waited for crews for being able to appear at ſea, ſeveral of them were kept ever in readineſs at Archangel; and as, beſides, two navies were then maintained, of the Baltic and the Euxine, it was difficult to aſcertain the preciſe number of all the men of war from private accounts. However, Beaufort * greatly exaggerates the matter, by affirming that Ruſſia, in the year 1787, had a marine conſiſting of one hundred ſhips of the line. Not even about the years 1790 and 1791, though at that time all the ſhip-yards were fully employed, could ſhe number ſo many, even ſhould we take into the account the large frigates which might act with thoſe of the line. For, according to an authentic ſtatement made by ſeveral eye-witneſſes, there lay in the year 1791, to be ready in caſe of emergency, not far from Cronſtadt thirty-two ſhips of the line, and ten large frigates, which were capable of being placed in the line, with all the neceſſary tranſports †, and a row-fleet conſiſting of two hundred and forty gallies; all excellently equipped and manned: beſides ſeveral men of war that were left behind unrigged in the mole of Cronſtadt, and ſome entirely new at Archangel. But at that time it appeared by the Pe-

* In his Grand portefeuille politique.

† The Hamburg gazettes of 1791 ſpeak of thirty-three line of battle ſhips, (among them five of one hundred guns) ſixteen frigates, and twenty-four cutters.

- terſburg-

terſburg-gazette, that in the laſt engagement with the Turks July 31, 1791, there were in the Euxine ſixteen ſhips, two frigates, two bomb-ketches, one repeating tranſport, one fire-ſhip, and ſeventeen cruizers. At the ſame time in the Archipelago, by the Hamburgh-gazette, the ruſſian fleet conſiſted of twelve ſhips, which it is well known were not of the line *.

In 1795 the fleet fitted out at Cronſtadt to cruiſe in the Baltic conſiſted of ſix ſhips of one hundred guns; ten of ſeventy-four guns, three of ſixty-ſix guns, ſix frigates, and two cutters. The auxiliary fleet ſent to England by the empreſs was compoſed of four ſhips of ſeventy-four guns, eight of ſixty-ſix guns, ſix frigates, and two cutters.

The ſtate of the ruſſian fleet at Sevaſtopol in the ſpring of 1796, after all the old veſſels had been condemned, was as follows:

1	ſhip of 90 guns	90
1	—— 80	80
3	—— 74	222
6	—— 64	384
11	ſhips of the line	776
8	large frigates	362
19	Total	1,138 guns

* What figure this force, accuſtomed to encounter the ſwediſh fleet, would have made againſt that which the cabinet of London threatened to ſend into the Baltic, muſt be now left entirely to conjecture.

beſides

beſides thoſe on the ſtocks, which are now finiſhed.

The flotilla at Odiſſa, or Khogia-bay, conſiſted altogether of twenty-five very large and ſixty veſſels of inferior magnitude to be uſed as tranſport-veſſels for conveying the troops.

Theſe veſſels are ſixty-four to ſeventy feet in length, draw ſix feet water when loaded, and carry one very large cannon. They are rigged with a lattin ſail and jib, and are provided with twenty-four oars; beſides theſe, there are in theſe ports a great number of other tranſports, bomb-ketches, ſchooners, brigs, &c.

VIEW

VIEW

OF THE

RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

BOOK VII.

REVENUES OF THE EMPIRE.

IT is no wonder if foreigners entertain miſtaken notions of the revenues of Ruſſia, ſince in the country itſelf they are not to be accurately aſcertained, not even in the office of the treaſurer-general *. Becauſe the ſums which are there brought to account are only a part, though a very conſiderable part of them.

The empire has ſources which though extremely productive do not properly come under the head of the ſtated revenue, but principally belong to proprietary eſtabliſhments. For, 1. the nett incomes flow into various places and departments,

* Nor was any imperial high-treaſurer appointed; the general-procureur, prince Vaſemſky, always executed that office.

where

where they cannot be accurately eſtimated: ſome directly into the empreſs's own privy purſe; for inſtance, the profits ariſing from the ſilver-mines of Kolhyvan and Nertſchinſk, which belong to the crown; others go to the college of war, others again to the medical college, &c. 2. Many particular incomes (or which are properly regarded as ſuch) are aſſigned in perpetuity inſtead of pay, therefore in ſome meaſure cannot be calculated, as not being carried to account not even in the high-treaſurer's office; for inſtance, the beneficial fiſhery of the river Ural granted to the ural Kozaks. 3. Some conſiſt in deliveries in kind, which are either not valued at all or charged at a very low price. Of this ſort are the arende-corn * of the crown-lands, and the rations of corn and hay from all private and public eſtates; the latter is, indeed, compenſated by the poll-tax †, but the crown has nevertheleſs conſiderable profit out of it. 4. Many

* Arendator, or arrendator, in Livonia, Eſthonia, &c. is a farmer of the farms, that is, he contracts with the crown for the rents of the farms; crown-arendator is one who rents an eſtate belonging to the crown. By the term arende is implied both the eſtate that is let out and the ſum for which it is let. Arende-corn is corn paid as rent by admediation.

† The occupier receives of the crown in the compenſation for a chetvert of rye, which in 1789 was worth more than eight rubles, only two rubles, and muſt beſides carry it ſometimes one hundred and twenty or one hundred and eighty miles to Riga. How much would it coſt the crown if it had to buy up the rye in the country, and convey it thither by hired carters?

provinces and diſtricts, in lieu of all or ſome public taxes, perform certain ſervices, which are never calculated among the revenues, but, by thoſe who would give the real amount of them, muſt neceſſarily be conſidered as equivalent to money. Thus, all the Don-kozaks, with the various diſtinct branches of them, beſides other immunities granted them, pay no public impoſts whatever, but in return perform military ſervice. The Tepterey, conſiſting of Tartars, Tſchuvaſches, and Tſcheremiſſes, who in the province of Ufa are numbered at upwards of thirty thouſand heads, pay but a very trifling capitation tax; then they are in conſideration of that, obliged to furniſh the crown with carriages for the tranſport of the rock-ſalt of Iletzk*. At the mines of Kolhyvano-voſkreſenſk forty-eight thouſand crown-boors execute certain works inſtead of their poll-tax; but neither their labour nor their head-money can be entered in the accounts of the high-treaſurer's office as incomings. 5. Some tribes pay their tribute, at leaſt partly, in furs or in hides. Theſe latter are for the army-conſumption, and therefore cannot be entered in any money-account. 6. Many incomings are ſubject to great fluctuations, ſuch as the duties, the produce of the mines, &c. 7. With ſome others, after deducting the coſts and charges, which properly come under the head of

* Pallas, travels, tom. i. p. 17.

expenditure, the bare profit is received, as at particular mine-works, the copper coinage, &c. but with others again not: accordingly great uncertainty muſt ariſe in the calculation. 8. Certain products which the crown receives from its domains, as, marble and precious ſtones; alſo certain wrought goods for the army and navy, as, cannon-balls from the mineries, are not claſſed among the articles of income, though they certainly are of that nature. 9. Conſiderable ſavings, which in other countries cannot be made, ought to be regarded as income, for example, the low pay of the ſoldiers and ſailors, with many other things and peculiarities of the ſame kind, that, to avoid prolixity, muſt be omitted*; which, however, ſhould be brought into account, or we ſhall be continually liable to miſtake: and even could we get ſight of all the accounts of the treaſury, the mere inſpection of the money paid in would never put us in condition to draw a compariſon between the real revenues of Ruſſia and thoſe of other kingdoms.

We need not, therefore, be ſurprized that foreign writers have eſtimated the ruſſian revenues either very erroneouſly, or extremely different one

* Thus only to bring one example, in the ruſſian army there is no camp-bakery: every ſoldier is his own baker. A hole which he digs in the earth, having covered the bottom with a ruſh mat, ſerves him firſt for a kneading-trough, and then for his oven.

from another, and that we are to place no confidence in their ſtatements. Some eſtimate them at not more than ten millions, while others for the year 1788 make them amount to eighteen. Mr. Buſching proceeds with great caution: he ſpecifies the ſources and the branches of the revenue; but, in the former editions of his Geography, he ſtates them in the year 1770 to have been only ſixteen, and in the later editions he ſets them down at twenty-four millions. This latter ſtatement he ſupports on a very fallacious hypotheſis; he ſays, becauſe the national revenue during the reign of the empreſs Elizabeth amounted to ten millions *, and the empreſs Catharine II. in the preamble to her ukaſe concerning the imperial lombard of the year 1786, declares that without burdening the people it is at preſent more than twice as much as when ſhe aſcended the throne †, he thinks himſelf authoriſed to ſet it down

* How would it be poſſible to admit this ſtatement as accurate? the maintenance of the army and navy alone would require the whole of it, without mentioning the other great national expences. — Frederic II. in his poſthumous works, tom. i. p. 57, eſtimates the revenue of Ruſſia, ſo early as the reign of the empreſs Anna, at between fourteen and fifteen millions; which ſum may be correct, by taking into account only the ſpecie that flowed into the imperial coffers; but afterwards it is well known to have been greatly increaſed: how then could it have conſiſted of no more than ten millions in the reign of Elizabeth?

† This the empreſs declares expreſsly, but without aſcertaining how much the revenue amounted to on her acceſſion

down at twenty-four millions *. But, as we have already ſeen, the opinion, that in the firſt quarter of the eighteenth century it was only at nine millions is erroneous, therefore neither can the adduced ten millions be properly uſed as a ſtandard. — The Gotha-calendar of 1790 comes ſomewhat nearer the mark by ſtating the revenue at about thirty-five millions. The like ſum has been adopted by the author of the ſtatiſtic Survey, at the ſame time making the juſt remark, that there are ſtill extraordinary † revenues conſiſting of the gratuitous performance of ſervices and delivery of products; that theſe are not included in the above ſum, and that ten millions in Ruſſia will go much farther than thirty of equal value would in France. — Mr. Coxe is far more accurate than all thoſe authors, in eſtimating the national revenue of Ruſſia at 41,830,910 rubles, though even this ſum does not reach to the full amount ‡.

Under

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to the throne. On this latter point the ſtatiſtical problem turns.

* It almoſt ſeems as if Mr. Buſching even had ſome ſcruple in eſtimating the ſum ſo high.

† Not for the ſake of cavilling about words, but for ſolid reaſons, the expreſſion here ſeems not to be quite adequate.

‡ He adds, however, " But it is difficult to conceive how " the empreſs is able to maintain the magnificence of her court; " the number of public inſtitutions; the numerous buildings " which

Under ſome few of the former ſovereigns it is not impoſſible that the whole revenue ſhould have conſiſted of no more than nine or ten millions, as it was not only ſufficient for all the ordinary expenditure, but Peter I. Anna, and Elizabeth carried on expenſive wars without incurring any national debt, and at the ſame time executed great public works which coſt immenſe ſums, of which we need only mention the Ladoga-canal and the docks and canals at Cronſtadt. — But Catharine II. executed infinitely more coſtly undertakings, to which enormous ſums were employed. What muſt have been her diſburſements on account of wars, coloniſts, ſumptuous buildings, the erection of new and the embelliſhment of old towns, in monuments, ſeminaries of education extended and increaſed, loan-banks, the ſalaries in the viceroyalties, donations of various kinds, and a thouſand other particulars. Hence we may conclude, that the revenue for her eſtabliſhments muſt have been far greater than formerly, or as the empreſs expreſſed it herſelf, more than twice

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" which are continually erecting at her expence (*); the " liberality with which ſhe encourages the arts and ſciences; " the purchaſes which ſhe is continually making in every coun- " try in Europe, and the immenſe donations which ſhe confers " upon the moſt favoured of her ſubjects." Travels, vol. iii. p. 347. 8vo. edit.

(*) In time of peace her majeſty allots at leaſt two hundred thouſand pounds per annum for the purpoſes of building.

as much. Indeed ſhe remitted a great many duties or taxes, forty-ſeven of them at one time by an ukaſe of March 17, 1775, and afterwards ten more by an ukaſe of June 28, 1777, conſiſting not of trifles, though even a ſmall impoſt, when paid by numerous ſubjects of a large empire, amounts to a conſiderable ſum; but ſeveral were of conſequence, for inſtance, the tenths of all mines belonging to the ſubjects, together with the taxes on the forges, &c.; ſhe likewiſe aboliſhed many of the antient farms, ſuch as, that of the capture of ſea-dogs on the Baikal, and even ſome of the monopolies enjoyed by the crown, for ſuch were formerly among others certain articles of the commerce with China which were reſerved entirely for the caravans of the crown, particularly all ſorts of fine furs, but this entirely ceaſed by imperial command, and the trade was laid open. Yet on the other hand the imperial treaſury was a gainer; for, only to particularize in ſome inſtances, the finances were increaſed, 1. from the acquiſitions and conqueſts; 2. by the great extenſion and encouragement of commerce; 3. by curtailing the eſtates belonging to the biſhops, the monaſteries, and the churches, whereby the crown not only got a great number of boors, with large tracts of arable land and foreſts, but other lucrative matters, as, the ſalt-works near Irkutſk, which formerly belonged to the Voikreſenſkian-monaſtery, and certain merchants of the place;

4. by

4. by raiſing the obrok; 5. by rendering the poll-tax more general, which muſt now be paid by the provinces of the Baltic, of Little Ruſſia, and the antient ſlobodes, which were formerly exempt; 6. by the new duties, in all of which a very conſiderable difference was obſerved; thus, for example, at Reval in 1768, they amounted only to 17,163 rubles 34½ kopeeks, but in 1787 to 190,198 rubles 56¼ kopeeks; 7. by better regulation at the mines; thus we learn from an authentic ſtatement, that from the mines of Kolhyvan in 1760 only 264 pood of ſilver containing eight pood of pure gold were ſent to Peterſburg; whereas in 1779 there came 809 pood containing twenty-four pood of pure gold; 8. by reforms in regard to other impoſts, &c.

It would be mere oſtentation to pretend here to give a ſtrictly accurate or even a ſatisfactory ſtatement of the national revenue*; but we will ſtate it more preciſely than has hitherto been done by any foreigner: not indeed from archival† accounts, nor

* Thus the treaſurer, as the preſent receiver, in many provinces, has no right to force the people to pay their poll-tax in one entire ſum, or to deliver it at ſtated times, but muſt receive it in whatever portions and at whatever times it is brought.

† No private perſon can expect to get ſummary extracts from all the chanceries that keep account of receipts, or from the treaſurer's office. In many of the chanceries, though not in all, a great myſtery is made of matters which every body

nor yet in hypothetical and conjectural numbers, but from incontrovertible facts, as delivered by perſons of undoubted veracity on the ſpot. The totals will be found in ſome caſes to refute preconceived opinions, and in others to exceed expectation. — It will be neceſſary, firſt, to inquire from what ſources the revenues flow. Theſe are:

1. The HEAD-MONEY, to which the burghers, (but not merchants,) the odnodvortzi, all ruſſian boors, and various other tribes are ſubject, and from which many, as the Kozaks of the Don, &c. are exempt. It is paid only by male heads, including babes and old men. The numbers found at one reviſion remain unaltered till the next, and muſt be paid by the community for thoſe who in the interim die, elope, fall into poverty, are taken as recruits, &c. The amount of the tax is various according to ſtation and country. For every male head it is commonly per annum for burghers one

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might know without danger. Sometimes we meet with perſons who communicate very good accounts, but not one who will tell anything of his own chancery: whether from a conſcientious regard of their oath, or from the apprehenſion of cenſure, or from being acquainted with certain maxims. The chief of a department is generally the moſt communicative; and a great number of particulars are moſt eaſily learnt by judiciouſly leading the converſation. Therefore, if we cannot produce authentic liſts, we can deliver many things on teſtimony equally valid.

ruble

ruble twenty kopeeks, for odnodvortzi one ruble, and for all private-boors, and for many of thoſe belonging to the crown ſeventy kopeeks. All are obliged to every ruble to make an addition of two kopeeks. But numbers who are either real boors, or are conſidered as ſuch, pay far more; for inſtance thoſe of the former ſlobode government of the Ukraine, according to the nature of their trade and immunities, pay, ſome a hundred and twenty, ſome a hundred, ſome ſeventy kopeeks; thoſe of Ingria a hundred and fifty, but thoſe at the mine-works a hundred and ſeventy kopeeks; and if I rightly underſtand one account, the agricultural-boors even two rubles. The boors allotted to the court-chancery, in the government of Perme, are obliged to pay ſtill more, namely 2½ rubles, which ſince 1783 has been increaſed by an additional ruble. (One might be almoſt led to imagine, that the head-money is here confounded with the obrok.) The common free people of Livonia and Eſthonia, who are not burghers, pay likewiſe only ſeventy kopeeks. — Now, it is calculated that there are greatly above eleven millions of boors, and, including the burghers and odnodvortzi, upwards of twelve millions of taxable perſons. If we average them at ſeventy-two kopeeks, it will be found to yield a large ſum, though many of them pay their capitation-tax in ſervices or labours inſtead of money. However, the crown ſuffers many loſſes by the running

running up of arrears, though all poſſible alleviations are made to the people in the collecting of the tax. Yet there are diſtricts, nay whole governments, where arrears are utterly unknown *, but this will not properly apply to all places. — That many provinces and people who now pay the capitation-tax were formerly exempt from it has been already obſerved. Whether the raſnotſchintzi are ſtill free from it cannot here be determined. But ſome tribes inſtead of this tax pay a tribute in furs. — Formerly the head-money was ſent to the college of war for the ſupport of the army; ſome alteration has probably of late been introduced, and a part of it is employed otherwiſe, as the amount is now much higher than it was at that time.

2. The TAX UPON THE CAPITAL OF MERCHANTS, or, as it is ſometimes called, the percentage. It was firſt introduced into the provinces of the Baltic in the year 1783. The merchant gives up the ſtatement of his capital without compulſion or judicial examination, at his own diſcretion: but according to the amount of it his privileges and immunities in regard to commerce, to offices, and outward conſideration, are regulated. Every one pays yearly one per

* In this number there may be comprehended people and nations who pay ſome kind of tribute, or perform ſervice for it: ſome pay only one ruble.

cent.

cent. in return for which he and his children are exempt from the poll-tax. None can be a merchant unleſs he ſtates himſelf to have a capital of five hundred rubles; but there are many of them who inſcribe themſelves at fifty thouſand, and even a great deal more, and conſequently pay annually from five hundred to one thouſand rubles.

3. The DOMAIN-LANDS, the income ariſing from which it has already been mentioned, is very various; ſome pay arende-money; or with it, as in Livonia, likewiſe natural products, eſpecially corn, which muſt be dealt out to the troops, or delivered into the crown-magazines. They principally conſiſt in obrok, that is, a money-tax, which the crown-boors, as well as the agricultural boors now belonging to it, (unleſs, as in Livonia, they perform foccage ſervice,) are obliged to pay yearly for each male head. In virtue of the ukaſes of January 20, 1765, and November 5, 1768, they paid, "beſides the cuſtomary ſeven "grievniks, (i. e. ſeventy kopeeks,) poll-tax for "each and ſingular ſoul of the male ſex, accord-"ing to the numbers taken at the laſt reviſion, "a duty (i. e. tax or obrok) annually of two "rubles." But, on the 3d of May 1783 an order was publiſhed, that "on all imperial, court, and "agricultural boors, as well as on the odnod-"vortzi and other ſettlers, which are at the "diſpoſal of the economy-directors, in lieu of the

" the former two rubles, the duty henceforward " ſhall be raiſed to three rubles for each male " ſoul, and the addition of two kopeeks on every " ruble." Some accounts enumerate upwards of 4½ millions of crown and œconomy-boors, and upwards of ſeven hundred thouſand odnodvortzi. The ſum, therefore, ariſing from the obrok may be eaſily calculated. It muſt not, however, be forgotten, that crown-boors are at times emancipated, or their duties aſſigned to the ſalary of governors, &c.

4. The SEA-DUTIES, which indeed depend on circumſtances, and are liable to fluctuations, but are at preſent very conſiderable; whereof the three following ſea-ports alone, by authentic ſummary accounts received from them, may ſerve as a proof. At Riga the duties paid in 1773 amounted to 541,509 rubles 22½ kopeeks; but in the year 1786 they brought in 748,287 rubles 16½ kopeeks. — At Reval the raiſed duties produced in the year 1768 only 17,163 rubles 34½ kopeeks; in 1787 they came to 190,198 rubles 56½ kopeeks, likewiſe one hundred alberts-dollars and 77½ kopeeks; in 1788 the duties were 167,236 rubles thirteen kopeeks; but in the year 1789, even 342,079 rubles 36½ kopeeks; in which of the laſt-mentioned year were not compriſed the eighty-ſeven rubles 33½ kopeeks that came into the amojena (cuſtom-houſe) as confiſcation-money, nor the 6688 rubles 54½ kopeeks that were raiſed

for

for the ſupport of the ſchools and the wharfs. — At Peterſburg and Cronſtadt, which two ports are to be conſidered only as one, being both under one cuſtom-houſe, the duties paid in 1787 were almoſt four millions, namely, 3,910,006 rubles 17½ kopeeks; whereas in the year 1788 upwards of four millions, viz. 4,035,743 rubles 22½ kopeeks. In the nine years from 1771 to 1780 excluſive, the comings-in at that cuſtom-houſe, in dollars and ruſſian money, were 16,642,205 rubles 32½ kopeeks; but in the ſucceeding nine years, namely from 1780 to 1789 excluſive, they were 28,023,482 rubles 45½ kopeeks; conſequently, the latter nine years yielded a ſurplus of more than eleven millions. But, as the ſuperintendant Schemakin had farmed the Peterſburg duties, the ſum paid by him for the contract for nine years was only 13,655,257 rubles twelve kopeeks; accordingly the preſent duties in the laſt nine years againſt the contract produce a difference of more than fourteen millions. As the duties of only three ſea-ports are here ſtated, it is eaſily conceivable that of the whole empire it muſt amount annually to a very large ſum; for here no notice is taken of the other ports of the Baltic, and not one of thoſe of the other ſeas has been mentioned. Buſching has not ſpecified the amount, only ſaying that a commiſſion in the year 1764 found the duties at all the ſeaports and frontier-towns to be three millions. Thoſe adduced

duced of three ſeaports ſhew that theſe three millions form no adequate ſtandard for a calculation of the whole at preſent.

5. The LAND-TOLLS, which, though not ſo conſiderable as the laſt-mentioned duties, are yet by no means totally inſignificant; if we only conſider the vicinity, and the trade by land with Courland, Poland, Turkey, China, Bukharia, the Kirghiſes, and other tribes. The orenburg-trade produced, as we already learn from Buſching's geography, in the year 1751, tolls to the amount of 95,123 rubles. But from the trade with China the tolls at Kiachta on exports and imports in 1770 were 550,000 rubles; and in the two following years not much leſs *. A trade with China is likewiſe carried on at another place, viz. Old-Zuruchaitu, where the ſeveral tolls brought in only five hundred rubles †.

6. The duties on LAW-PROCEEDINGS, commonly called poſchlin; of which, to avoid prolixity, we ſhall only obſerve, that for every petition a duty is paid of about twenty-five kopeeks, with the ſame ſum for ſealing and for the final deciſion, but for a writ of appeal ſix rubles. — Here may be reckoned likewiſe the paſſport money.

7. STAMPED-PAPER, the annual conſumption and amount whereof we are enabled to ſtate from particular chanceries, but not for the whole em-

* Pallas, travels, tom. iii. p. 154.

† Id. ib. p. 429.

pire.

pire. The price of it has lately been raiſed to double the ſum it was formerly ſold at, and the uſes for which it is neceſſary more accurately aſcertained At preſent it brings in a conſiderable ſum per annum *.

8. The duty, or poſchlin, on the SALE OF IMMOVEABLE PROPERTY, in which are included not only houſes and lands but alſo vaſſals. This impoſt is of very antient date in Great-Ruſſia, and conſiſted, if I miſtake not, in ten per cent on the money ariſing from the ſale, which muſt be given in and proved by the certificate of emption. It was afterwards lowered to ſix per cent, and in the year 1783 introduced both into the provinces of the Baltic and thoſe of Little-Ruſſia. At length the empreſs in 1787 fixed it at five per cent. When ſales are frequent, eſpecially of large eſtates, this tax yields a conſiderable receipt to the coffers of the crown.

9. The KABAKS (tipling-houſes,) or the ſale of corn-ſpirits †. It has already been remarked, that

* The cheapeſt ſheets coſt at preſent ten (formerly five) kopeeks; but for more important tranſactions, according to the nature of the buſineſs, ſeveral rubles.

† Whoever farms the kabaks of the crown, is allowed to keep in them alſo beer, mead, &c. and this, with other trifling advantages, enables him to pay the crown for every vedro of brandy three rubles, and to ſell it in the kabaks at the ſame price. Then it is lawful for every one, even the boor, to brew his own beer, without being ſubject to any exciſe; only he muſt

that though this be a monopoly of the crown, yet by virtue of antient rights and privileges not only all noblemen throughout the empire may diſtil brandy for their own domeſtic uſe*, but alſo whole provinces may deal in it and keep public-houſes, for inſtance, the don and malo-ruſſian Kozaks †, likewiſe the livonian and eſthonian land-owners and towns ‡, as well as many others. The crown ſells an incredible quantity of brandy, by which it gains large ſums. We are told by Buſching, that " the contract for the kabaks at

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muſt not deal in it: though this is allowed to the livonian and eſthonian towns, and landlords, and others.

* In Ingria the nobility were not permitted to diſtil as much as they pleaſed, but each a certain quantity according to his rank. Whether this be the ſame all over the empire, or whether perhaps by the new letter of grace granted to the nobility that limitation has been removed, is what I cannot determine; I ſhall only juſt remark, that every ruſſian nobleman may ſell brandy even to the crown, and therefore diſtil the quantity agreed for.

† Yet the crown has kabaks in Little-Ruſſia. — Here it may be remarked, that inns or houſes to put up at are not to be found in all parts, not even in all towns. In many places they are not at all known: travellers turn in at ſome boor's or burgher's houſe.

‡ That is, the livonian and eſthonian towns are now, by an order of the ſenate, to have even crown kabaks, but their net profits are to be applied to the benefit of theſe towns and to defray their public expences. But, by an ukaſe of the ſenate, of the year 1790, the old regulations remain.

" Peterſburg

" Peterſburg and Moſco, with the parts adjacent, " while they were let out on farm *, brought in " the yearly ſum of 3,320,000 rubles." Theſe two were indeed always the largeſt and moſt populous towns, and the diſtrict of the moſcovian government the moſt extenſive: but if we add the many other governments, Pſcove, Novgorod, &c. it may eaſily be conceived that the crown draws annually between eight and nine millions from this ſource: which is alſo confirmed by perſons well acquainted with the buſineſs. But a ſhort illuſtration will put the matter out of all doubt. — From a reſolution of the ſenate, of the year 1789, it appears, that the city of St. Peterſburg, with the ſeven circles of its government, conſumes annually 583,126 vedros: of which the greater part was then already podraded (contracted) for at one hundred and forty-eight kopeeks for every vedro; if they found perſons who were willing to deliver the other quantities at the ſame price, which is extremely probable, then the crown, receiving three rubles on each vedro, gains annually 886,351 rubles fifty-two kopeeks for the brandy of that

* All the kabaks are farmed out; but the contractor can neither diſtil the brandy himſelf, nor buy it at his own option: he muſt take from the crown the whole quantity ſtated in the contract, even though it ſhould happen that few cuſtomers come to drink it. — Noblemen now begin to farm kabaks; but by a late ukaſe of the ſenate it is reſtricted to merchants, &c.

government alone *. — The government of Pſcove conſumes yearly, according to the declaration of the revenue chamber there, in all 127,000 vedros, whereof 40,000 are diſpoſed of in the city of Pſcove alone, but only 6000 in Petſchur †. — The government of Perme conſumed in the year 1783 in all 164,831 vedros, on which the crown had a net profit of 338,876 rubles fifty-one kopeeks. — The crown indeed takes a part of the brandy requiſite for the kabaks from its own diſtilleries in Ruſſia, but they are not yet in every place upon a beneficial footing ‡; it therefore

* In the years 1783 to 1786 the livonian noblemen delivered the vedro at ſeventy-five kopeeks; but from 1787 to 1790 at ninety kopeeks, whereby, on account of the high crown-prices, they ſuffered a conſiderable loſs. At that time therefore the crown gained on every vedro firſt two rubles twenty-five kopeeks, and then two rubles ten kopeeks, as it was at no other expence than what it paid for the brandy by the terms of the contract. The ſeller muſt deliver it in the town agreed on; there the kabak-farmers receive it under the authority of the revenue-chamber, who cauſe it to be carried by hired people into hired houſes, (both at their own expence,) pay the people who ſerve it at the kabaks, and even pay for the caſks; and withal find it very profitable.

† All the kabaks of the villages in the circle are here included. — On account of the vicinity the Livonians deliver their brandy there much cheaper than at Peterſburg. But, as the crown every where gets three rubles for the vedro, it gains ſomewhat more in this government than elſewhere.

‡ This will be farther explained when we come to treat on commerce.

finds

finds at times a far surer profit, by engaging in contracts for deliveries, which is done now through the revenue-chamber, and always for four successive years. The contractor must give a security on his immoveable property; and what he does not deliver at the stipulated time, is purchased on his account *. — As the crown sells the livonian fass, or cask, of brandy for about thirty-six rubles, but which in Livonia, where the brandy is much stronger, is worth sometimes only from seven to

* He sometimes meets with indulgence; but must pay a penalty per cent. which however is more tolerable than if it were bought on his account, for the crown pays him if the contract be struck at ninety kopecks, for the fass about eleven rubles in bank-assignments, which bear a depreciation of ten to fourteen per cent. below silver rubles; but sometimes the fass is bought on the market in Livonia for fifteen to twenty-two rubles, which among others happened in the years 1789 and 1790. Moreover, the deliverer must provide for the transport, pay the crown leakage and porterage, furnish casks at a low stated price, and answer all risks till the delivery is complete. The brandy is held proof by the crown if it burns half away in copper (a copper skillet); whereas it must be delivered so strong from the livonian distilleries, that in silver somewhat at least above the half must burn away. Therefore the deliverer to fix casks of brandy puts about one cask of water; but as the mixture must be made at his house, he pays likewise freight for the transport of the water, which, on every large vessel of forty vedros, according to the distance and other circumstances, amounts to between six and eight rubles. — The dealers reap a great advantage in the article of manure for their fields. If the Livonians were to send no brandy to Russia, from the great distilleries there, the price would fall very low, even in their own country.

twelve rubles, the ruſſian boors will run the riſk of buying up the brandy ſecretly by a faſs at a time in Livonia and Eſthonia, and convey it by ſtealth into Ruſſia. Againſt this ſhameful practice of ſmuggling very ſevere prohibitions have been iſſued, and inſpectors are appointed at the ſeveral entrances to the towns, and the kabak-farmers themſelves, for their own ſakes, keep a ſharp look out. In Livonia the nobility have entered into an aſſociation not only to amerce thoſe who privily ſell it to the ruſſians in heavy penalties, but to deprive them of the licence of diſtilling brandy, and from theſe fines pay a reward to the informer of five hundred rubles. Hence it appears that this monopoly of the crown is not exactly to the taſte of the common ruſſians, who are very fond of brandy, eſpecially of the ſtrong ſort*: but it is ſaid to be a difficult matter to find out another impoſt equally productive in its place; for if it were to be converted into a money tax, it would ſeem oppreſſive, and occaſion much loſs to the crown by arrears. It is for this reaſon that the monopoly is continued, though it is attended with many difficulties to the officers of the crown.

* Some common venders were accuſed of having adulterated the brandy in the kabaks, and then, to give it a poignancy, putting in it common pepper, &c. However, this is ſtrictly forbidden; and queſtmen are occaſionally appointed to ſee that no frauds of this nature are committed.

10. The SALT-TRADE, of which ſeveral particulars have been occaſionally mentioned; as that ſome diſtricts and people, for inſtance, the uralian Kozaks, fetch their ſalt gratis from certain lakes; while others, ſuch as Livonia and Eſthonia, buy it of foreigners, on which the crown only lays a duty. — The crown obtains its ſalt, with which it ſupplies the whole empire (whatever expence it is at for carriage) at thirty-five kopeeks the * pood, partly from lakes, partly from ſalt-pans, and partly from ſalt-hills. — The rock-ſalt of the iletzkian hill coſts the crown on the ſpot not quite one kopeek the pood. Formerly the Kozaks and Baſchkirs cut here their ſalt at will; but, in the year 1754, the crown put it under better regulations. From three to four hundred thouſand pood of it is annually brought away and diſtributed over the empire. It would in many reſpects be more advantageous if the uſe of it were farther extended. — In ſome places the ſalt ſtands the crown in three kopeeks per pood on the † ſpot. But the tranſport is attended with great expence, and conſumes much of the profit. For carriage from Ebeley to the province of Iſetſk and the forts on the frontiers the crown paid till the year 1768 for every pood from nine to thirteen kopeeks; at which time this mode of conveyance

* One ſtatement ſpeaks of forty kopeeks, which is a miſtake.

† Pallas, travels, tom. iii. p. 292.

ceaſed. The ſalt is now fetched to the province of Iſetſk, above one thouſand verſts from the lakes about the Irtiſh, for which the carriage amounts to between fifteen and eighteen kopeeks the pood *. — In the government of Perme, at Solikamſk, at Uſſoliye, and in Tſchuſſoffkoi-Gorodok, are ſalt-pans, partly belonging to the crown and partly to private perſons: to the latter the crown uſed to pay eight kopeeks a pood for ſeething; but, ſince the year 1786, they get for the uſſolian ſalt 9½, and for the ſolikamſkian 10½ kopeeks. For the tranſport to Niſhnei-Novgorod, where the principal ſtore is kept, the hired carriers are allowed ten kopeeks; whence it is conveyed partly by water and partly by land. From its own pans the crown obtained in the year 1782 at Solikamſk 910,142 poods. But the whole quantity prepared there annually is four millions of poods. On all that was conſumed in the government of Perme and carried thence elſewhere, the profits to the crown in 1782 amounted to 400,000 rubles. — But great quantities of ſalt are obtained by the crown †, in other places from ſalt-lakes, &c. — At Staraiya-Ruſſa it coſts indeed twenty kopeeks the pood; but then it is diſpoſed of in the neighbourhood at no great ex-

* Pallas, travels, tom. iii. p. 305.

† It has been affirmed that from the ſalt-lakes in the ſteppes of Batabe and Iſetſk 1,400,000 pood of ſalt is annually obtained.

pence

pence in carriage. — Hermann thinks that the Elton-ſaltlake and the ſalt-works at Perme together yield more than two thirds of the ſalt conſumed in the whole empire. But this is hard to determine, at leaſt it is doubtful, if not utterly improbable, becauſe ſome diſtricts fetch their ſalt themſelves (whoſe conſumption is not eaſily to be aſcertained); others buy it of the foreigner; much rock-ſalt is conſumed; in ſeveral places are ſalt-pans and lakes, which he ſeems to have entirely forgotten, for inſtance, the productive ſalt-lakes in Taurida; and laſtly a good deal of ſmuggling may be practiſed. It would therefore be difficult to ſtate how much the whole empire annually conſumes. Hermann ſays* twelve millions of poods; but from the reaſons which he aſſigns, it is manifeſt that this ſtatement is not ſufficient. — Buſching is of opinion that the crown draws from the ſalt-works (whence it appears that the lake and rock-ſalt are included, but merely the net-profit) annually not above two millions. This number ſeems to be juſt, unleſs we limit the yearly conſumption to twelve millions of poods. Hereto muſt be added, that a great quantity of ſalt is exported from Taurida to other countries for the benefit of the crown, eſpecially to the poliſh Ukraine and to Turkey.

11. The MINES. The moſt important of the

* Hermann, Ertzgeb. tom. i. p. 74, and p. 143.

mines belonging to the crown, are thoſe of Kolyvan or Barnaul, and thoſe of the Argoon, or properly of Nertſchinſk; both yield ſilver containing a proportion of gold; then follow the gold-works at Ekatarinenburg; and beſides theſe ſeveral copper and iron-works. — It appears that at Kolhyvan the annual produce has not always been alike; in the year 1772 it conſiſted in 1277 pood of ſilver, which was found to contain fifty pood of pure gold: the value whereof in coin was 1,769,902 rubles. At times the produce is far ſhort of this. — The mines at Nertſchinſk are reckoned to yield annually from two hundred to four hundred pood of ſilver ore, from which one thouſand pound and about 12½ pound of gold are obtained. At Ekatarinenburg from five to ſeven pood of gold-duſt may be hammered into bars every year; but in 1782 its net produce was no more than 22,143 rubles, fifteen kopeeks; yet the profit from 1754 to 1786 was in all 1,341,352 rubles ſixty-eight kopeeks. — From all the ores of Altay, from 1745 to 1780 were ſeparated in all 686 pood, ſixteen pound, forty-nine ſolotniks of pure gold. — The copper and iron mines likewiſe bring the crown a great income; in the government of Perme in 1782 the copper yielded a profit of 341,676 rubles; and the iron 228,699 rubles 73½ kopeeks. Beſides theſe it has iron forges in the governments of Tambof and Olonetz. — The mines produce not only metals but various kinds of

of ſtones, as marble, ſmoky topazes, amethyſts, agates, mountain-cryſtals, jaſper, granite with veins of coloured quartz, &c. which are diſpoſed of by the crown either poliſhed or unpoliſhed; likewiſe alum, vitriol, &c.* — The late empreſs having by ukaſes of grace relinquiſhed her imperialties on the private mines, namely, the tenths of the copper and iron, the ſilver and the gold, and likewiſe remitted the taxes on forges at the works, the crown now raiſes no revenue from them, excepting from the copper which is delivered to the mint at a reaſonable price.

As the ſtate of the mines can be but little known from other writers, a farther account of them here, as I have it from good authorities, may be acceptable to many of my readers. It is true that Buſching has mentioned the amount of the ſilver ore obtained from them between the year 1704 when they were firſt diſcovered, and 1772, likewiſe of the year 1779; yet I add from an authentic liſt eleven years to theſe: and it is to be obſerved that theſe ſtatements are of far greater compaſs than the former†. It muſt in

* From all which it appears that they who make the yearly product of the mines only five hundred thouſand rubles, are very far ſhort of the mark.

† Hence it is particularly ſeen, how abundant the ore is, and how much gold adheres to it. — The bank purchaſed theſe mines in 1792 for two millions of rubles, to be paid in ten years by annual inſtalments of two hundred thouſand rubles.

the

the firſt place be remarked, that the mines of Barnaul or Kolhyvan are much more productive than thoſe of Nertſchinſk: for the pits hitherto opened in the latter have no continued or ſteady veins, are never powerful, and ſeldom terminate in large neſts, are always poorer as they proceed in depth, and change their contents at every fathom. Yet new but always poor veins are frequently diſcovered; conſequently the amount of the ſilver obtained is not every year alike, and can never, with any certainty, be previouſly eſtimated to what it may ariſe. — The ſilver is not of like kind, and not ſo abundant in gold, as that of Barnaul; the ſolotnik is only reckoned at 19½ kopeeks, whereas the ſolotnik of gold is valued at two rubles fifty kopeeks. The former muſt ſtand the aſſay of ninety to ninety-three. The gold is ſeparated from it at the laboratory of St. Peterſburg. — The crown allows for all expences of the ſilver mines of Nertſchinſk, including the maintenance of the battalion, the annual ſum of two hundred thouſand rubles; which is ſometimes, but not every year, entirely conſumed. What is obtained above this ſum, is called net profit. This ſeldom amounts to leſs than one hundred thouſand rubles, uſually more. Sometimes a greater quantity of ſilver is ſmelted from the ore, and yet an inferior net profit is obtained; as when a ſcarcity of proviſions or other conſiderable expences carry away the whole ſum of the allotted two hundred thouſand

thousand rubles. The following table exhibits the produce:

Years	Silver ore smelted.	Thence obtained pure silver.				Wherein was pure gold.			
	Pood.	Pood.	lb.	Solotn.	Parts.	Pood	lb.	Solotn.	Parts.
1775	2,165,600	500	8	41	35	2	4	19	72
1776	1,682,706	382	12	64	39	1	8	57	69
1777	1,377,797	303	12	—	69	1	17	35	82
1778	1,981,869	353	16	53	72	2	8	23	11
1779	1,605,802	317	29	54	84	1	10	8	85
1780	1,920,012	415	39	44	43	1	8	88	86
1781	1,597,273	368	27	57	67	1	9	56	6
1782	1,919,080	423	21	77	88	1	18	8	63
1783	1,831,535	441	10	79	70	—	39	86	1
1784	1,858,456	422	1	50	70	1	25	3	37
1785	1,333,406	265	29	42	73	1	7	73	35

Of the above parts, 96, make a solotnik.

Busching says, in the year 1779 were procured of ore 380 pood, 33 pound, 51 solotniks. His statement that one thousand pound of it contained about twelve and a half pound of gold, is here shewn to be wrong.

Mr. Storch, well known for his statistical accuracy, thinks it may be admitted with the highest degree of probability, that at present every year in the russian empire is produced of

Gold about	40 pood
Silver	1900
Lead	30,000
Copper	200,000
Iron	5,000,000
Salt	12,000,000

with a quantity of mineral products, which, in money, by the most moderate computation, may be stated at thirteen millions of rubles; and by adding

adding the precious ſtones, ſulphur, vitriol, &c. conſidering the preſent prices, cannot be leſs than fifteen millions of rubles.

From this produce the net gain, after deducting all expences or charges, amounted in

1775	in all to	253,028	rubles	72½ kopeeks
1776	—	158,896	—	74⅝
1777	—	118,093	—	28¼
1778	—	109,021	—	90¾
1779	—	106,305	—	49
1720	—	119,306	—	96¼
1781	—	86,159	—	14¾
1782	—	100,848	—	12⅞
1783	—	142,204	—	27½
1784	—	122,460	—	25¼
1785	—	29,872	—	41

12. The MINT, of which an account muſt reaſonably be expected here, yet only ſo far as it ſtands related to the national revenue; the other remarks belong not to this place, but to the article of commerce, where a ſtatement will be given of the various coins, and their value in circulation. — The ruſſian monies conſiſt of gold, ſilver, copper, and bank aſſignations. Theſe laſt, as a great convenience to commerce, by facilitating the remittances throughout the country, and ſupplying the place of copper, require here no very nice deſcription, becauſe there is always ſuppoſed to be as much copper-coin in the bank as that every one immediately on application may receive it in exchange

change for the paper he brings, and in circulation they bear their full value as hard copper *. They therefore cannot properly be reckoned among the ordinary ſources of national revenue, though from them an advantage may accrue to the crown, as, among other ways, when theſe notes are accidentally burnt or otherwiſe deſtroyed: yet alſo a loſs may enſue on occaſion of them, as when perſons are ſo fearleſs of the laws and ſo diſhoneſt as to forge them and bring their ſpurious notes into circulation. — Of the copper coinage Buſching ſays, there is a yearly profit of two millions upon it. This ſum may perhaps be rated too high, at leaſt according to Hermann's account †, who ſets it down for the year 1779 at only 818,165 rubles 98 kopeeks; and in another place he mentions that the crown, at the mint of Ekatarinenburg, where the copper is coined, gained in 1782, after deducting all expences of coinage, a clear profit of 765,582 rubles 70 kopeeks. Indeed at times great ſums paſs through the mint at that place, many years to the amount of three millions, and then the profit may ariſe to two millions; but in the years 1786 and 1787, from a want of water,

* The copper ſpecie is commonly about ten per cent. and ſometimes more inferior in value to ſilver or gold in commercial and other payments; the aſſignations bear therefore the ſame value. Some even require an agio when they give copper money for aſſignations, but this is forbidden by ukaſe. — In many countries the paper money is a lucrative operation of finance.

† See Ural-ertzgeb. tom. ii. p. 104.

the

the ſum did not much exceed one and a half millions, and in the year 1783 it was ſtill leſs *. The pood of copper coſts the crown, from its own founderies, about five rubles; but when it is obliged to purchaſe the ſame, nine rubles; the private founderies muſt all deliver the half of their copper to the mint, at the rate of five rubles fifty kopeeks the pood: but the pood of copper is coined into ſixteen rubles; if we deduct from this the waſte in the coinage, the wages of workmen, and the expence of tranſport, the remainder is pure profit. Formerly the mine-owners were obliged to deliver two thirds of their copper at the mint, which afterwards was lowered to the half. Some are of opinion, that theſe deliveries ceaſed with the other imperialties which the empreſs relinquiſhed by her ukaſe of grace: but this ſeems to be an error ariſing from a miſconception of the matter; for the ukaſe of the 28th of June 1786 expreſsly ſays in the 28th article: "Whoever "ſhall henceforward, beſides the actual produce "of his copper-works, obtain a freſh increaſe "from them, or ſhall open a new mine, ſhall, for "this copper gained above the ſtated quantity, "be freed from the obligation of delivering the "half of that metal at five rubles fifty kopecks "into the caiſſe, and at the ſame time be at li-"berty to deliver it, on ſuch terms as he can "agree to, to our aſſignation-bank, and either to

* See Hermann's Ertzgeb. tom. ii. p. 99 & ſq. and tom. iii. p. 363 & ſq.

"ſell

"ſell it or to carry on any lawful trade with it "that he finds moſt profitable *." — Not only ruſſian gold and ſilver are coined, but alſo foreign, which the crown either buys or obtains by commerce and the cuſtoms. Thus, the chineſe commerce brings ſilver into the empire at ſixteen rubles the pound †. The cuſtoms at Riga, which muſt be paid in Alberts-dollars ‡, yield the crown a conſiderable quantity of ſilver for the mint. That this metal is likewiſe brought to St. Peterſburg appears from authentic documents. According to one of theſe there came to that city in the year 1788:

	Number.	Weight.			Value.	
		Pood	lb.	Solotniks.	Rubles.	Kops
GOLD:						
Ingots - - -	2	—	18	—	6428	—
Ducats - - -	3200	—	31	90	9650	—
SILVER:						
Bars - - -	29	24	36	—	24,010	—
Dollars - -	211,250	357	21	91	320,117	50
				Total	360,205	50

* By an ukaſe of the 23d of June 1794, all copper-works belonging to individuals, which are ſet up with the aſſiſtance of the crown-caiſſe, or have received land, foreſts, or boors from the crown, muſt pay, over and above the former tenths, ten pood out of every hundred.

† Pallas, travels, tom. iii. p. 145. — This is the price of ſilver in Ruſſia; the ſilverſmiths, however, now pay ſomewhat more for it.

‡ The Alberts-dollars that come into the cuſtom-houſe there are immediately cut in two and ſent to the mint at Peterſburg.

The crown has ſometimes found great advantage in the purchaſe of ſilver from abroad *; but in general the coinage of ſilver and gold forms a part of the national revenue.

13. NATURAL PRODUCTS, in which taxes and tribute are paid, the true amount whereof can never be accurately aſcertained. Thus Livonia is bound to deliver for every haak a ſtated quantity of rye, barley, oats, and hay, for money indeed, but for a low fixed price, and at whatever place the ſtewartry of proviſions is pleaſed to ap-

* The following anecdote from the mouth of an imperial miniſter may ſerve as an illuſtration of what is here advanced. When the emperor Peter III. was about to undertake the expedition which he had reſolved to make againſt Denmark with an army of eighty thouſand men, whereof count Romantzof was to form the avant-guard with a body of twenty thouſand, he endeavoured not only to enter into a treaty with certain courts concerning the proper requiſites, &c. but cauſed alſo a remittance of ten millions of rubles to defray the firſt expences of the campaign. The remittance of theſe ſums could not be done without loſs. By the well-known events which preſently after happened, the expedition fell to the ground; and then aroſe the queſtion, how beſt to draw back the money without additional loſſes, and that at once, at leaſt ſo as that no exceeding long term might intervene? A very reſpectable miniſter, then in office, conſulted on the ſubject with Mr. William Gomm, an engliſh merchant at St. Peterſburg, and court-banker, who recommended ſecrecy, and drew up a plan, in which all mention of recalling the money was ſtudiouſly avoided, but a commiſſion was given at various places to buy gold and ſilver in bars to that amount; by which a conſiderable gain enſued.

point:

point *: Eſthonia pays in rye and barley. — Some tribes ſend hides and furs into the imperial treaſury. Thus, the Vogules deliver a certain number of elk-ſkins †; ſome pay ſables in natura ‡; ſome tartars pay tribute in martens or other furs, as thoſe on the river Tſchulym §. Of the Tunguſes it appears, that about the year 1770 money has been taken inſtead of ſuch tributes ‖. Tributes in kind, in many diſtricts, as in thoſe of Kraſnoyarſk, are ſtill aſcertained by ſables, though no longer headwiſe, but of whole ſtems collectively; alſo not always in ſables, but generally in other furs, even in hides of large deer and elks, which the caiſſe admits at ſixty to one hundred and twenty kopeeks a piece for the uſe of the cavalry. Much tribute is paid in money, and then the ſable is reckoned at a ruble ♪. Thus the Sagayans (Tar-

* Sometimes meal is required inſtead of rye, and griſt inſtead of barley, whereby a loſs is apt to ariſe, and the receiver may have an opportunity for finding fault. But the caſe is hardeſt when the delivery, particularly of the hay, is required to be made at very diſtant places. — However, in return for theſe hardſhips, in Livonia and Eſthonia they are exempt from the furniſhing of recruits. — The livonian arende-eſtates belonging to the crown deliver corn gratis.

† Pallas, travels, tom. ii. p. 258, and Hermann's Beytrag, tom. iii. p. 143.

‡ Hermann, ib. p. 235. § Pallas, travels, tom. ii. p. 319 and 663. ‖ Id. ib. p. 241. & ſq.

♪ The Vogules in the government of Perme pay, if I rightly recollect, two rubles in lieu of the ſables.

tars) on the banks of the Abakan, pay for each bow three rubles*. — In regard to all ſuch tributes the late empreſs granted a great alleviation by ordering the acceptance of other furs more eaſily obtained, and at the ſame time ſecured the tributaries from the vexations formerly exerciſed by the receivers; of which ſomething farther will be mentioned hereafter.

14. The ſhare of EXCISE AND RECOGNITION DUTIES in towns, but which amount to no great ſums, and are not raiſed by far in all towns.

15. The POSTS, which only yield a net profit in ſome provinces where the maintenance occaſions no expence to the crown. — In Livonia and Eſthonia the owners of eſtates are obliged to keep all the poſt-houſes; the crown, therefore, in the year 1786 raiſed a revenue of about ſixty-ſix thouſand rubles from the poſt-office at Riga: — whereas the ſupport of the poſt-houſes † in Ingria coſts it a pretty large ſum.

16. All kinds of RENT for places, ſhops, mills, parcels of ground, bee-hives in foreſts, bathing-houſes, fiſheries, public inns, &c. ‡ Particularly a good

* Pallas, travels, tom. iii. p. 12 and 348.

† I believe latterly ſome alteration was made in this reſpect.

‡ Some of theſe contracts have indeed been diſcontinued, as the capture of ſea-dogs in the Baikal; but others continue, as appears from the ſeveral ukaſes and the revenue-accounts. Concerning ſome I have my doubts, as ſeveral may perhaps have been

a good deal of land which the crown cannot occupy is let on leaſe as fields or meadows, by deſætines, for a trifle indeed, but from the great quantity, amounting to a good ſum upon the whole.

17. RECRUIT-MOÑEY from merchants: theſe were obliged formerly to furniſh recruits, but now they pay for each recruit five hundred rubles to the imperial caiſſe. From one hundred thouſand merchants this amounts at every levy to a conſiderable ſum. — Foreign merchants are exempt from it.

18. Various PECUNIARY PENALTIES, ſuch as, for harbouring or concealing deſerters, for diſtilling brandy contrary to law, for ſelling brandy or ſalt contrary to law, for neglect of duty, (on which occaſions a part of the officer's pay is deducted,) for keeping accounts in arrears, &c. Yet in ſuch caſes none are proceeded againſt with extreme ſeverity.

What few remaining ſources of revenue there may be will be found in ſome reſpects at leaſt reducible to one or other of the foregoing denominations.

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been aboliſhed latterly, as the tenth of the marienglas at Udinſk; likewiſe the ten rubles for every iron foundery, and on ſmithies in Yeniſeiſk. See Pallas, travels, tom. iii. p. 95 and 309.

The national revenue then at preſent amounts annually to about as follows:

	Rubles.
Tax on capital of 107,264 merchants, of whom though many pay only five rubles per annum, yet almoſt as many pay ten, or fifty to one hundred, and ſome even one thouſand rubles; ſay only - - - - -	1,300,000
Poll-tax on 247,604 burghers, at 120 kopeeks - - - - - - - - -	297,000
Poll-tax on 11,205,077 boors belonging to the crown and to private individuals, who, for the moſt part, pay ſeventy kopeeks, a few ſomewhat leſs, but many far more; on account of arrears, &c. ſay only	7,000,000
Poll-tax on 774,067 odnodvortzi, at one ruble; ſome pay more, but others nothing at all - - - -	700,000
Obrok on theſe odnodvortzi, at three rubles - - - - - - - - - -	2,300,000
Obrok on 4,568,166 crown and œconomy-boors, at three rubles; yet becauſe ſome contribute leſs, or perform work inſtead, or remain in debt, &c. only - - - - - - -	9,000,000
Addition to the poll-tax and obrok, on each ruble two kopeeks - -	380,000
Cuſtoms at all the ſea-ports, about -	8,000,000

Land-

	Rubles.
Land-duties I reckon only at* - - -	800,000
From kabaks and public-houſes - - -	8,500,000
From the ſale of ſalt - - - - - -	2,000,000
From the crown-mines about - -	1,800,000
From the mint - - - - - - - - -	2,000,000
From ſtamped paper, perhaps - -	600,000
Poſchlin on the ſale of immovable property, likewiſe on proceedings at law, with ſeal-money, as alſo for preparing of patents, at leaſt	800,000
Exciſe and recognition-duties, ſundries ariſing from premiums for contracts, rents, recruiting, and forfeitures - - - - - - - -	600,000
From Livonia and Eſthonia, from the crown-eſtates, in arende-corn, and ſpecie, likewiſe profit on payments in natural products from private and public eſtates, as alſo in revenues from the poſt-houſes	200,000
From families and kibitkies of Kalmucs, from Tartars of Taurida, &c.† - - - - - - - - - - -	100,000

Beſides many other receipts, particularly in

* When the trade with China is in good progreſs, as with other neighbouring countries, it amounts much higher, probably to two millions.

† The tribute in furs paid by ſundry nations I comprehend under the poll-tax and obrok.

natural products, which are not here ſpecified. Accordingly we have now a reſult of upwards of forty-ſix millions; though appearances give room to ſuppoſe that the receipts are not eſtimated to their full amount*. But allowing that ſeveral articles produce rather leſs, yet there remains exceedingly more than foreigners (generally from conjectures without foundation or knowledge of the matter) have hitherto ſtated. That the revenues cannot amount to much leſs, is manifeſt from the incontrovertible facts which have been adduced; however, ex abundanti, it may be illuſtrated by an inſtance taken from another point of view. To this end let us ſelect three governments which are not among the largeſt either as to ſuperficial contents or to the number of their inhabitants, namely, thoſe of Reval, Riga, and Perme. In the two firſt are found neither of the productive monopolies of the crown, viz. the ſale of brandy and ſalt, nor mines; and beſides they are the ſmalleſt in the whole empire. But the government of Riga in the year 1785 brought in above $1\frac{1}{2}$ millions, and that of Reval, being the leaſt, in 1787 about three hundred thouſand rubles. From that of Perme the receipts are at preſent calculated to be above $3\frac{1}{2}$ millions. Now conſider the number,

* On making a calculation ſome time ago with an intelligent man, we brought the produce to upwards of forty-eight millions, though every particular was very moderately rated.

the

the dimenſions; and the revenues of the other governments*.

The national revenue, therefore, far exceeds that of moſt other countries in Europe, and is amply ſufficient, not only to anſwer all the expences of government, but alſo to afford conſiderable ſums for the benefit and embelliſhment of the empire, though the late empreſs remitted many taxes, and aboliſhed ſeveral monopolies. With the farther increaſe of commerce it will naturally keep equal pace. — But if we take into the account the military ſervice performed by ſome nations, among others of the Don-kozaks and their numerous branches, or the great † ſavings ariſing from the nature of the government and the habits of the people, and regard them, as we

* Here might, perhaps, be a proper place to ſubjoin ſome farther obſervations on the public burdens or taxes; this will be done afterwards if room can be ſpared for that purpoſe.

† Among theſe are not only the ſmall pay of the ſoldiers and ſailors, but alſo many other particulars. Thus, the whole of the vaſt multitude of the uralian Kozaks, for all their military ſervices on the frontiers of that ſide of the empire, &c. receive of the crown no more than an annual pay of five thouſand rubles, and a few preſents when they bring fiſh to Peterſburg: in return, the abundant fiſhery in the river Ural is granted to them, (which ſome merchants are ſaid to have offered to take by contract at the ſum of two hundred thouſand rubles,) by means of which they are enabled to paſs their days in idleneſs, jollity, and luxury, and think themſelves richly paid.

properly may, as part of the revenue, we ſhall find the amount to be greater by ſome millions.

The national expenditure ought reaſonably now to be ſet againſt the receipts, and both compared together; but to this I find myſelf not competent, and muſt, therefore, make a few brief remarks ſuffice. — In general it may be affirmed, that in drawing a compariſon between Ruſſia and other european nations it exhibits a ſtriking difference in regard to national expences *. What in other countries demands enormous ſums, can ſometimes in Ruſſia be accompliſhed at much leſs than the half: only compare the many great fortreſſes in France, or the pay of ſailors in England and Holland, with thoſe in Ruſſia, where the cheapneſs of proviſions and other neceſſaries, the multiplicity of the products, the low pay, the ſervices to be performed without wages, and ſeveral other things occaſion very conſiderable ſavings. — However it muſt be obſerved on the other hand, that the preſent national expenditure in Ruſſia is widely different from what it formerly was: to convince us of this we need only turn our eyes to the numerous fleets, the augmentations of the army, the many ſumptuous eſtabliſhments, the embelliſhments of the reſidence, the erection and ſupport of a great number of new towns, the bene-

* One of the firſt is, that, for inſtance, in ſome countries, where the national income is very great, the major part of it goes to pay the intereſt of the national debt.

ficial

ficial endowments, the ſalaries of the officers in the provincial governments, and a thouſand other things, in compariſon of the expences of the imperial treaſury in former reigns. It is not therefore ſurpriſing that new ſources of revenue were neceſſary for meeting theſe expences. How many millions have been ſpent upon the coloniſts! What ſums are now required by the numerous places of education, cadet-corps, ſchools, the making of new roads, for inſtance that from Peterſburg to Moſco, &c. Even the miniſters at foreign courts are increaſed in number; and how many conſuls did Catharine II. keep in ſeveral places where formerly there were none! The penſions, likewiſe, at preſent* require more than formerly, as there are two new orders of knighthood inſtituted who receive them. — From this curſory view it appears, indeed, that the national expences muſt be very great, but the actual amount of them cannot be accurately given by any private individual, probably not even by the high-treaſurer of the empire †.

That

* Even in the penſions there are certain ſavings in Ruſſia. It often happens that ſuperannuated officers requeſt, inſtead of a penſion, to be placed in ſome garriſon, where, though with leſs pay, they live at greater eaſe and at a much ſmaller expence. Others obtain, in lieu of a penſion, a piece of crown land on paying the arende. Others again are allowed an annual preſent out of the revenues ariſing from the œconomy-boors.

† There are national expences which are never publicly known, at leaſt are never named in the eſtimates according

That the erection and ſupport of the governments, on account of the great number of officers on ſtipends, muſt occaſion to the crown an annual expence of ſome millions, of which nothing was heretofore known, needs not to be inſiſted on. It may be illuſtrated by an example drawn from the five following governments. That of St. Peterſburg, including the military commands, coſts annually 144,450 rubles; that of Vyborg 113,663; that of Reval, about 108,000; that of Riga in albert-dollars and ruſſian coin together about 168,000; and that of Perme 161,947 rubles. — For the army eſtabliſhment, according to the declaration of a late member of the college of war, about the year 1764, was near upon nine millions; the commiſſaries of proviſion received 2,300,000 rubles: whether this ſum be ſtill ſufficient, as the army is much increaſed, I cannot ſay, but probably it is, becauſe by the new regulations many expences are avoided. — But the ſum formerly allotted to the marine of one million two hundred thouſand cannot now in any degree ſuffice, is manifeſt from the brief repreſentation already given.

It is certain that the expences of various kinds would be remarkably diminiſhed, (and the re-

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to their application to particular views of government. Sums that occaſionally paſs through the hands of a foreign miniſter, &c.

ceipts

ceipts at the ſame time be increaſed,) if all the people in office would faithfully manage the ſums that paſs through their hands as their duty requires. Formerly the crown was ſubject to great loſſes (as is the caſe more or leſs in all countries) by negligence * and likewiſe by fraud †. — So likewiſe would the national revenue be greater in itſelf if certain defects and diſadvantages could be entirely avoided. For, not to mention the great

* Thus, hay is ſometimes bought at a high price on the crown's account; and, not being wanted for immediate uſe, is ſuffered to lie expoſed to the weather till it is entirely ſpoilt. So it frequently fares with the deliveries of meal in mat-ſacks.

† One inſtance may ſerve out of ten thouſand. An officer (by birth a German) had a large magazine under his care, which brought him in conſiderable profit. Being called to town to deliver his accounts, on the journey the public-houſe where he had put up for the night took fire (who ſet it on fire need not be mentioned). He proved the burning of the houſe, lamented that his books were all burnt in it, and was diſmiſſed without farther proceſs. — In the ſeven-years-war a contractor, who was bargaining with a general for a delivery of meal, demanded by far too high a price. On being chid for having the aſſurance to aſk ſo exorbitantly, excuſed himſelf by ſaying, that he could reckon on but a very moderate profit, as he muſt make a number of preſents before he could hope to touch the money; firſt to get the contract approved and ſigned; then that no fault ſhould be found with the meal on its delivery: next to get the proper receipt for it; afterwards to obtain an order for payment; and, laſtly, to procure the money without tireſome delays and evaſions. It was ſaid that ſuch tranſactions latterly became leſs frequent.

arrears

arrears in the obrok and poll-tax, or in other matters, both the ſea and land cuſtoms ſuffer a conſiderable defalcation by ſmuggling, which, in ſpite of all precautions hitherto employed, flouriſhes here as much, at leaſt, as in other countries. In the mean time the great number of frontier-ſurveyors and frontier-riders appointed for the ſuppreſſion of it coſt the imperial treaſury conſiderable ſums. — It has ſometimes formerly happened, that either merchants or perſons in office, by their manner of proceeding, or by accident, have interrupted the trade with ſome of the neighbouring nations, and thereby brought a ſenſible detriment to the cuſtoms, and indeed to ſeveral provinces. — However, during the reign of her late majeſty ſeveral former diminutions of the revenue were checked by prudent meaſures, and at the ſame time the amount very much increaſed. One method was by putting a ſtop to the practice of farming out the duties, &c.

Concerning the national debt miſtakes are alſo gone abroad. Some authors have eſtimated it at forty millions of rubles; but this ſtatement is erroneous. Buſching gives it accurately from a manifeſto of June 28, 1786, in which the empreſs ſays, that by wars, by the augmentation of the forces by ſea and land, as well as by coſtly undertakings to the incalculable benefit of the empire, an expence has been already incurred to the amount

amount of ſix millions ſix hundred thouſand rubles. Which debt was to be liquidated in the middle of the year 1795 *. When this is compared with the formidable national debt in other countries of Europe, and at the ſame time regard is had to the large revenues of Ruſſia, it is evidently a mere trifle.

* Not by new taxes, as in many other countries, but by the ſurpluſſes ariſing from the ordinary national revenues.

dignity and ſplendor. However, an imperial college by no means reſembles a parliament, having authority, or at leaſt which might venture, to ſet aſide the edicts it received, and delay their execution. Indeed, as has been already ſhewn, by the decree of Peter I. and the regulations adopted by the late empreſs, if, on the emiſſion of any command or law, they wiſh to ſubmit ſome weighty points for conſideration by way of remonſtrance, it is permitted them to do ſo, and to defer the execution till the final reſolution be obtained; when, if the command be repeated, no farther delay enſues.

Moſt of the imperial colleges, as will readily be ſuppoſed, are in the reſidence, in the vicinity, and as it were under the eye of the ſovereign; many of them, however, have their ſeveral diſtinct departments at Moſco, and ſome have even their principal ſeſſion there: either becauſe that capital was formerly alſo the reſidence, and therefore ſtill enjoys ſome privileges; or as being thought more convenient for the diſpatch of particular affairs. — Moreover, the imperial colleges are of two kinds, ſome being co-ordinate with each other, and others ſubordinate. In their halls of aſſembly at the upper end of the table ſtands a chair of ſtate under a canopy for the ſovereign, as a ſenſible token of that authority preſiding there, a conſtant ſuggeſtion to the aſſembled members,

and

and a magnificence exciting awe*. The members of the colleges ſit at the ſides of the tables, as does the preſident likewiſe. — In the imperial colleges is a procureur, or upper-procureur, but in the ſenate a general procureur. The procureur ſits in one corner of the hall; in another the ſecretary or upper ſecretary; neither of whom have properly any voice in the tranſactions†; but the former muſt obſerve that nothing is done contrary to law; and therefore it is his buſineſs to remind the aſſembly during their conſultations of the particular laws that relate to the matter before them as occaſion may require. No ſentence is valid, or can be ſent abroad without his ſignature. If the procureur, e. g. in the ſenate, perceives ſome contrary reaſons, he repreſents them to the department; if they prove of no avail, he

* In all the inferior courts a triangular figure of braſs ſurmounted with an imperial crown is placed upon the table, of the ſame nature with the mace belonging to bodies corporate in England, as a ſymbol of the authority by which the ſittings are held. On the three faces of this triangle are inſcribed the ukaſes of Peter I. concerning judges and parties. Whoever behaves diſreſpectfully or improperly before this figure, is conſidered as having behaved ſo in preſence of the ſovereign.

† In the lower courts, where new judges are choſen every three years, the ſecretary muſt preſent the members of the court with the laws that ſerve to the deciſion of the caſes that come before them. This, together with long experience, &c. may give him at times a certain degree of influence, and that even in ſuperior courts.

delivers them to the general procureur, who may, if he pleaſe, lay the matter before the aſſembled ſenate. — Belonging to all the colleges are not only a great number of chancery-officers, as ſecretaries, archiviſts, cancelleriſts, writers, &c. ſince there is a prodigious deal of writing*; but every one of the ſuperior has its own printing-office, as well as its phyſicians in ordinary.

Peter the great is allowed on all hands to have accompliſhed much; but it was not poſſible for him to introduce every thing at once. Under his ſucceſſors in many reſpects but little was done: perhaps likewiſe abuſes might creep in from the undue exerciſe of power by a particular college, or the uſurpations or the negligence of ſome perſons who had arrived at the ſummit of conſequence†. This it was that ſuggeſted to Catharine II. the neceſſity for making many alterations, and for adopting new regulations. — Likewiſe by the introduction of the provincial governments

* In no other country in the world perhaps are the offices even of the inferior courts, ſo thronged with clerks, and no where is there ſo much writing as in Ruſſia. — Nevertheleſs it is pretended that formerly in every chancery an adequate regularity did not always prevail. — On urgent occaſions, after making ſtrict ſearch for papers, plans, admeaſurements, and a thouſand other things, they could not be found in their proper places.

† One inſtance happened under the empreſs Elizabeth, which excited great attention in regard to the city of Irkutſk, on which occaſion a very upright governor was made a ſacrifice.

ſeveral

ſeveral of the former colleges became leſs neceſſary, and others quite ſuperfluous: accordingly ſome have entirely ceaſed to act; others are only employed about long-depending cauſes; of many the public knows not whether they are continued or aboliſhed, or whether they have undergone any changes: therefore no accurate account can now be given of them *. — In general it is not to be expected that I ſhould deliver a circumſtantial deſcription of every college, its members, its concernments, &c. but ſuch brief accounts as the nature of the work allows, will be found in the following ſections.

SECTION II.

The Council and the Cabinet.

In common language neither of them are reckoned among the imperial colleges; yet in many reſpects they may be conſidered as ſuch.

* It is not therefore to be wondered at that Buſching ſpeaks doubtfully of various colleges, without aſcertaining whether they be aboliſhed or ſtill in being. — In like manner I mention ſome that exiſted formerly and are now aboliſhed, but ſeveral doubtfully, for want of being able to obtain ſatisfactory accounts. Therefore, it will not juſtly be imputed to negligence, if each college does not appear exactly in its right place, or if ſome comptoirs are entirely paſſed over.

Both of them met in the palace, depended upon the empreſs, acted under her eyes, received immediately her orders, and were in a manner the places where all things were originally ſubmitted to her deciſion and publiſhed as her decrees.

During the reign of Peter I. neither of them were known: all orders were then iſſued from the ſenate, as the ſupreme college of the empire, where he was frequently preſent and perſonally preſided. The empreſſes Catharine I. and Anna departed from this practice: they erected a cabinet, conſiſting, under their preſidence, of the two chancellors, and perhaps a couple of cabinet-miniſters; and hence the imperial commands were diſpatched to the ſenate*, which was ſtill neceſſary to be done. This was altered again by the empreſs Elizabeth, as ſhe always was ſedulous to retain every regulation that had been made by her father: ſhe removed the cabinet; and, by a manifeſto, Dec. 12, 1741, reſtored to the ſenate that conſequence which it had in the reign of Peter I.

The empreſs Catharine II. on her aſcending the throne ſaw very weighty reaſons for giving a quite different conformation to the ſenate, and alſo thought it for the advantage of government to erect a council and a cabinet.

The COUNCIL was ſtyled in ruſs, her imperial

* It ſeemed to loſe ſomewhat by this, as having now no ſhare in the promulgation of decrees, and conſequently no longer repreſented the true imperial privy-council.

majeſty's

majeſty's council. It was compoſed of the principal officers and perſons of the empire, namely, of general feldt-marſhals, generals in chief, ſenators, and actual privy-counſellors: at preſent they are fourteen in number; the fifteenth fills the place of a chancery-director, and has a ſecretary under him. The vice-chancellor of the empire is a member of this council (the poſt of grand-chancellor is ſometimes, as at preſent, vacant).

The CABINET, to which belongs the care of the ſovereign's private affairs or concerns, as likewiſe the reception of petitions, conſiſts generally of ten perſons, the high ſteward of the houſehold, privy-counſellors, major-generals, and ſtate-counſellors, with their ſeveral ſubordinate officers and chanceries. It alſo examines diſpatches, paſſes accounts, &c. takes cognizance of the produce of ſilver-mines, &c. — Whoever is not ſatisfied with a deciſion of the ſenate, may appeal by petition to the cabinet; and in this reſpect it does the office of a ſupreme tribunal, in which the ſovereign in perſon decides.

In extraordinary caſes it ſometimes happens that a ſpecial high court of juſtice is appointed, not ſubordinate to the ſenate but immediately under the ſovereign. The preſidents are uſually taken from the imperial colleges and other eminent ſtations, and likewiſe from among the members of the ſynod*. Where the alleged offence is

* Only as ſpiritual perſons they never put their hand to a ſentence of death.

of an extremely heinous nature *, the examination is firſt made by particular perſons appointed for that purpoſe, and the protocol is laid before the commiſſioners for their judgment. We have ſeen occaſionally a commiſſion appointed for cauſing plans to be drawn up of important inſtitutions in contemplation, as that, among others, which the late empreſs called together ſome years ago to conſider on the ſtate of the mines. On ſuch and various other occaſions the appointment of a commiſſion ſeems highly neceſſary †.

SECTION III.

The two ſupreme Imperial Colleges.

In common acceptation there is but one; namely, the directing ſenate, as that which iſſues its orders to all the other colleges and boards, but receives

* Such, for example, as were thoſe of Mirovitch and Pugatſhef.

† The late vice-chancellor count Panin frequently declared his diſlike to all commiſſions; he thought it more ſuitable to the due courſe of law, that every cauſe ſhould come before its proper court. But that cannot be done in all caſes: one proof of it is in the abovementioned ſtate of the mines, into which many diſorders had found their way, which the mine-college could not rectify. — Even in matters of leſs moment commiſſions and boards of inquiry are appointed in all countries. But in Ruſſia caſes often happen where two or three courts muſt decide in common; and then they act the part of a commiſſion.

none

none except from the ſovereign; having in reality a great authority and high conſideration. Yet in ſome reſpects the ſynod ſhould be conſidered as on a par with it, as being likewiſe ſubject to no other college, but receives orders from the ſovereign alone. Both require a ſomewhat more preciſe account.

1. The DIRECTING SENATE was conſtituted by the emperor Peter I. who raiſed it alſo to the rank of the ſupreme or higheſt college of the empire*. By an ukaſe of the 15th of December 1763, (which the ſenate publiſhed under the date of January 12, 1764,) the late empreſs new-modelled it entirely, commanding that it ſhould thenceforwards conſiſt of ſix departments, each of which to have its allotted buſineſs, but neither to take precedence of the other: four of theſe are in Peterſburg, and the other two in Moſco. Each iſſues its orders, and ſends them to the inferior courts †. The nomination and the number of the

* The exact day of its inſtitution, as we find it in the account of Scheremetof's life, was the 25th of February 1711, in the calendar of the academy of ſciences for the year 1790 it is accordingly ſaid to have exiſted ſeventy-nine years; whereas our countryman captain Perry, who was then in the country, tells us that it was inſtituted at Moſco in 1709, and called to Peterſburg in 1712, and that at firſt it conſiſted of nine boyars. — In fact it ſeems to have been erected in the place of the old boyars.

† As each of the ſix departments iſſues decrees in that belonging to it, (which are uniformly called ſenate-ukaſes,) it is

the members depended ſolely on the empreſs: in the year 1786 the firſt department conſiſted of nine, and the ſecond of ſix members; in 1789 the firſt had fifteen, the ſecond nine. Theſe ſit, as no preſident or vice-preſident is ever choſen, according to their rank and ſeniority. They have always been men of high rank, diſtinguiſhed generals, privy-counſellors, princes, counts, &c. By an ukaſe of Peter I. if the monarch has appointed no others, governors are principally to have ſeats in the ſenate, as being already converſant in ſtate affairs. This ſometimes ſtill happens, as not many years ſince a governor obtained the place of a ſenator*; moreover, every general-governor, by various edicts in virtue of his office, is a member of the ſenate, at leaſt is regarded as an extraordinary member, for on his coming into the reſidence, he may appear in the ſenate, and there give his vote.

This ſupreme imperial college, which the empreſs, in her Inſtruction to the legiſlative commiſſion, ſect. xxvi. ſtyles the ſanctuary of the laws, can iſſue orders to any other imperial college,

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impoſſible for a private individual, even in the heart of the reſidence, to inform himſelf of all the new ſtatutes and ordinances: only ſome few of them being publiſhed through the preſs.

* The word ſenator is adopted into the ruſſian language.

and

and receive reports from them (the ſynod alone is an exception to this, to which however the ſenate in certain caſes may make a ſort of requeſt): it publiſhes the laws and edicts received from the monarch, and provides for their execution; returns a deciſive anſwer to the queſtions ſent in by the courts or governors in doubtful caſes; appoints to many conſiderable poſts in the vice-royalties; advances, in the name of the empreſs, meritorious civil-officers to higher rank *; and is the higheſt tribunal to which appeal can be made: for none can either appeal from its decrees † nor complain of them; but whoever is diſſatisfied with its ſentence, has no other reſource than to preſent his petition to the cabinet ‡, as before obſerved.

A very

* At preſent far more titles, but to which no actual ſervice or pay are annexed, are conferred than formerly, for inſtance, that of a college-ſecretary, titular or actual counſellors, college-aſſeſſors, &c.

† Accordingly the empreſs ſays in her Inſtruction, &c. ſect. xcix. that the appeal to the ſovereign ought always to be rendered difficult.

‡ Then the empreſs uſed (though not always, as it depended on her) to transfer the caſe adjudged by one department to the whole ſenate for their deciſion. If the aſſembly pronounced a unanimous ſentence, then no hope remained to the loſing party of any alteration from the ſovereign. But if only one ſenator judged otherwiſe, then a gleam of hope was left. Some have gone from the whole ſenate (the plenum) with a petition to the cabinet; yet I know of but one

A very important, and indeed it may be ſaid, the moſt important perſon in the ſenate is the general procureur, who can oppoſe the reſolutions paſſed by any one of the departments, prevent their execution, and convene the whole ſenate together to pronounce upon them; and has, beſides, under his care a great number of important affairs.

In the ſenate are kept the archives of the empire; and various official comptoirs and chanceries belong to it or depend upon it. Theſe are, the office of imperial treaſurer, or the preſent board of the imperial revenues, which has four departments, with particular comptoirs * for the diſburſements and for the ſurpluſſes (or as they ſay in Ruſſia, the over-remaining ſums); then, the board of admeaſurement of the country and the frontiers, with chancery and comptoir, which the late empreſs appointed; the office of general requeſt maſter, the herald-maſter's comptoir, &c. But, in the two departments at Moſco the roſiræd-archives, containing the family proofs of all the nobility, have been hitherto kept.

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one inſtance where the empreſs made any alteration in the decree of the ſenate, in order to ſhew a favour to all the perſons concerned.

* Such an one is the preſent ſtate-comptoir as a diviſion of what is called the kaſnatſcheſtvo, for paying out the ſums neceſſary for the various peterſburg-departments, &c.

2. The

2. The HOLY DIRECTING SYNOD, the ſupreme ſpiritual court of the ruſſo-greek church. In the year 1789 this high college conſiſted of one metropolitan, one archbiſhop, one biſhop, one protopope (the imperial confeſſor), one archimandrit, one protopope (of the ſeculars), one upper-procureur, one chief-ſecretary, one executor, three ſecretaries, one protocoliſt, and one ſtaff-ſurgeon; abſent members were, one metropolitan, two archbiſhops, one biſhop. At the ſynodal comptoir at Moſco at that time were one metropolitan, one archprieſt of the ſecular clergy, one procureur, and one ſecretary. In the ſpiritual commiſſion, one metropolitan, one archbiſhop, one privy-counſellor, and one ſecretary * have their ſeats. — Under the authority of the ſynod are all prelates, conſiſtories, eccleſiaſtics, churches, religious books, &c.

* Beſides theſe each eparchy has its own conſiſtory conſiſting of one archimandrit, one or two priors (igumens) and ſome ſecular clergy.

SECTION IV.

The reſt of the Imperial Colleges, with ſeveral of the Chanceries, &c.

THEY are in a manner co-ordinate, and correſpond with each other. They were all inſtituted later than the ſenate, the moſt antient of them dating its origin about the year 1718. In reference to the foregoing they may be regarded as colleges of the ſecond claſs. They are diſtinguiſhed from all, even the firſt courts of the vice-royalties, by having their ſphere of action not limited to a ſingle government; and likewiſe in this, that they do not firſt apply to the ſenate, but directly to the ſovereign.

1. The COLLEGE OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS, which has the direction of miniſterial matters, pays the ſalaries of miniſters at foreign courts, penſions, and expences of envoys abroad, gives paſſports, &c. In all public liſts it ſtands before the reſt. The ſeats here are occupied by the vice-chancellor and other eminent perſonages, at preſent, for example, the ſteward of the houſhold, two actual ſtate-counſellors, and ſeveral ſtate-counſellors, and chancery-counſellors. Beſides fourteen perſons who exerciſe the ſecretariate, twenty-ſix tranſlators are here appointed, with ſeveral other chancery-officers.

officers. In their lists the ministers abroad in 1786 stood in the following order: Warsaw, Vienna, Paris, Madrid, Lisbon, Naples, Dresden, Hague, Turin, London, Ratisbon, Frankfort on the Maine, Berlin, Copenhagen, Stockholm, Hamburgh, Eutin, Mitau, Venice, Constantinople, Florence, Munich, Dantzick. — Agents or commissioners*, were likewise kept at Genoa, Maltha, and in 1789 also in Persia.

Hereto may be properly added from the same lists those persons who are appointed to parts abroad, on account of commerce, or at least under that title, viz. the general consuls at Hamburgh, Stockholm, London, Lisbon, in Sicily, at Smyrna, in the Archipelago, in Moldavia, at Corfu, Ostende, Salonichi, Leghorn, Gibraltar, Alexandria, in Albania, Saida, and the other places in Syria, the Morea at Raguza, Bourdeaux, and Venice. — 2. The consuls, vice-consuls, and agents: at Sinope, Elsineur, Trieste, Cadiz, Otranto, Marseilles, Rome, and Civita-vecchia, Amsterdam, Libau, Leipzik, Kœnigsberg, Lubek, Kiel, Dantzik, Augsberg, Kefalonia, Nice, and Villa-franca, Zante, in Dalmatia Ancona, in Persia at the port of Entsili, in Candia, Cyprus, Rhodes, Chio, Samos, at Varna, Porto-ferraio, Negroponte, San-

* The russian term poverennuye I do not here pretend to translate accurately. Agent does not come up to it, as that word is already naturalized in the russian language.

torini,

torini, Bairut, Damaſcus, Vindau, in the Dardanelles, in Moldavia, and at Dunkirk.

The foreign miniſters, reſidents and agents at the imperial court of Ruſſia, are in the following alphabetical order*: from Auſtria, Great Britain, Venice, Holland, Denmark, Spain, Kartalinia, Naples, Poland, Portugal, Pruſſia, Saxony, Sardinia, Tuſcany, France, and Sweden. The cities Lubek, Hamburgh, Bremen, and Dantzic, keep one general agent.

2. The COLLEGE OF WAR. It is compoſed partly of permanent members, and partly of ſuch as are changed. Of the former number is the preſident †, who is always general ‡ feldt-marſhal, though this place has been ſometimes left vacant; then the vice-preſident, which poſt is filled by a general in chief; next a general lieutenant and a general major, or even ſeveral of them. The changeable members conſiſt likewiſe of generals, who are taken from the diviſions at ſtated times. To the chancery, &c. belong the upper ſecretary, with the rank of a colonel in the army, the general controleur, the procureur, general auditor, upper auditor, executor, ſeveral ſecretaries, &c. —

* That is, according to the ruſſian alphabet.

† Prince Potemkin filled this poſt.

‡ Inſtances have not been wanting of a general in chief becoming general feldt-marſhal ſimply by obtaining the office of preſident.

This

This college does not entirely ſupply the place of a miniſter at war; it even has nothing to do with plans of operation, which belong to the council alone: however its buſineſs is extenſive and important; it relates to regulations for the diviſions, camps, encampments, and head-quarters; advancements *, diſmiſſions, and penſions; appointment or depoſition of generals and officers; directions for the payment of ſums required; and a variety of other matters. Under it are the accomptant's office, which delivers the money and articles of ammunition to the diviſions and regiments; the general victualling-office, the office for clothing the army, the military cheſt, the manufactories of arms, alſo in certain reſpects the quarter-maſter-general, on whom the artillery and engineers depend. — The cadet-corps is not under the war-college. — It has a particular office in Moſco.

3. The ADMIRALTY COLLEGE has its preſident †, who is high-admiral, a vice-preſident, and as members, admirals, and vice-admirals; in the chancery, a procureur, upper ſecretary, general

* The war-college promotes up to lieutenant-colonel, but only ſigns the patent of ſubaltern officers. The patents of ſtaff-officers muſt be ſubmitted to the ſovereign for confirmation and ſignature. All generals and colonels were advanced by her majeſty. — The ſame holds good with reſpect to diſmiſſals and reſignations.

† The grand-duke Paul Petrovitch filled that ſtation.

auditor-

auditor-lieutenant, executor, &c. — In its province are the ſhip-yards, general war-commiſſariate, the ſtore-office, &c. and has alſo its ſubordinate offices * at various places, as, Archangel, Cronſtadt, Kazan, Aſtrakhan, &c. — That the fleet in the Euxine is not under its authority has been already mentioned in its proper place. It directs the conſtruction and the ſtationing of ſhips, has the inſpection of ſuch foreſts as lie near navigable rivers, makes advancements, grants, diſmiſſions, &c. but like the war-college, has no interference with plans of operation.

4. The COLLEGE OF JUSTICE, or commonly the juſtice-college. The law-matters of Livonia, Eſthonia, and Finland are ſtill nominally in its juriſdiction; but ſince the erection of the vice-royalties of Riga, Reval, and Vyborg, no lawſuits are any longer brought hither from thoſe duchies. From that time it has been ſolely employed in terminating cauſes of long ſtanding, and are now almoſt all decided. It at preſent only takes cognizance of the matrimonial and conſiſtorial ſuits of the members of the proteſtant communions in Ingria or the government of St. Peterſburg and in Ruſſia (for the roman catholics have been for ſome years exempted by an immenoi ukaſe from its juriſdiction, and ſubjected to the archiepiſcopal

* Kantora is the word in all theſe places adopted into ruſs from the french comptoir.

conſiſtory

conſiſtory in Mohilef). Accordingly, it is now continued only as a proteſtant conſiſtory.

5. The COLLEGE OF COMMERCE is alſo in St. Peterſburg; has a preſident, ſeveral members, its procureur, executor, ſome ſecretaries, &c.

6. The MEDICAL COLLEGE has a chief-director, preſident, and ſeveral members, amongſt whom are a general ſtaff-doctor, various doctors and ſtaff-ſurgeons. It has the ſuperintendance of whatever belongs to the department of medicine, provides the army and navy with phyſicians and ſurgeons, &c. Nobody can practice the healing art in the empire without having previouſly undergone an examination here*. The college confers alſo on phyſicians and ſurgeons the title of doctor (a faculty which abroad only univerſities pretend to); it likewiſe advances ſurgeons, who have ſerved a certain time, to be ſtaff-ſurgeons, even when they are not appointed to the army, but are only in a country town†.

Beſides theſe are many other chanceries or permanent commiſſions, and departments, all having their peculiar buſineſs. Among them are: the upper-hunt-maſter's chancery, which has likewiſe an office in Moſco; the court accomp-

* From which neither the title of doctor obtained abroad nor any other atteſtation can be admitted as an exemption.

† It has the care of obſtetrical inſtitutions, regulates the charges of apothecaries, &c. and determines what noſtrums may be ſold in the empire.

tant-office, in which the high court-marſhal preſides; the ſtable-kantora, the building and garden kantora; the aſſignations-bank; the imperial bank; the commercial commiſſion, which in 1789 conſiſted of ſix members, all perſons of conſiderable rank, and one chancery director, two ſecretaries, one executor, &c.; the mint department; the reviſions-departments, which in a ſenate's ukaſe of the year 1789 was named the office for reviſing the accounts of the empire; the commiſſion for framing the plan of a new law-book; the academical commiſſion, eſtabliſhed not long ſince, has the ſuperintendance over all the ſchools and univerſities in the empire, (excepting only ſuch as have eſpecial privileges,) provides and examines all the neceſſary ſchool-books, has under it an academical-directory, and receives accounts from all the ſchools; the department of the finance-college, &c. In general all inſtitutions of importance, almoſt every large edifice, the education-houſes, hoſpitals, &c. have their particular offices.

During the late reign many of the colleges and kantoras formerly in being were aboliſhed. This was done at firſt by an ukaſe, bearing date Dec. 15, 1763, when a total alteration was introduced into the ſenate. Others have ceaſed on the erection of the provincial viceroyalties. Of this number are, 1. the ruſſian college of juſtice, at the ſame time the juſtice-comptoir, and the ſud-

noï-prikaſe,

noï-prikaſe, (which latter formerly decided petty matters of petition and demand,) having their chanceries both at Moſco and at St. Peterſburg. 2. The finance-college in Moſco, and the ruſſian finance-comptoir in Peterſburg, the buſineſs of which is now done by the finance-chambers of the ſeveral governments. 3. The ſuperior magiſtracy; after having terminated its affairs, it ceaſed on the 9th of April 1788. 4. The tutelary-chancery, to which were committed the care of all the coloniſt-inſtitutions. 5. The college of mine-works, the affairs whereof are now managed by the finance-chambers of the governments; to it was ſubjected, in the year 1781, the ſiberian head-mine-office at Ekatarinenburg, conſtituted by the emperor Peter the Great over all the uralian mines, and till then independent. There is nothing now remaining of it but the mine-ſchool at St. Peterſburg. 6. The œconomy-college, inſtituted the 26th of February 1764, to have the ſuperintendance over all the landed property at that time taken from the church, and called ſpiritual eſtates, (epiſcopal, monaſtic, and eccleſiaſtical,) and to manage their pecuniary produce. At preſent the boors belonging to thoſe eſtates are under the control of the œconomy-directors at the finance-chambers. — The following colleges and comptoirs appear to be already aboliſhed, or at leaſt are now ſuperfluous: 1. The feudal-

college which gave deciſions in litigated ſucceſſions and lawſuits concerning landed property, and conſiſted of four departments. 2. The reviſions-college, which was a ſort of check on other colleges, and reviſed their accounts, and, like the former, was at Moſco. 3. The finance-comptoir for livonian, eſthonian, and finland affairs, the buſineſs whereof is transferred to the finance-courts of the governments. 4. The manufacture-college, which was at Moſco, but had a comptoir at St. Peterſburg. 5. The confiſcations-college, which directed the ſale of all forfeited eſtates, and, among other things, levied the mulcts and fines impoſed by the other colleges. 6. The chief ſalt-comptoir, the buſineſs of which is probably given to the finance-courts.

SECTION V.

A glance at the Laws.

PERSONS who imagine the ruſſian form of government to be deſpotic have haſtily advanced, that in Ruſſia every thing is arbitrarily decided rather

rather than legally adjudged *, ſince, beſides the ukaſes that come out from time to time, which, being ſuited only to particular caſes, are frequently different from each other and even contradictory, there is no fixed and determinate law, much leſs any proper collection of ſtatutes †. This is a great miſtake; for, not to mention particular provinces, ſuch as thoſe of Little Ruſſia and thoſe of the Baltic, who have always retained their antient laws, and had the free uſe of them; law-books, or digeſts of the laws, have long been in being, and in uſe in Great Ruſſia. One of them, the novgorodian, was drawn up by Yaroſlaf the great in the eleventh century. Tzar Ivan Vaſſillievitch publiſhed a national code, which was framed upon the manner of thinking in thoſe times. Tzar Alexey Mikhailovitch publiſhed the Uloſhenie ‡ as a new law of the country, taking in ſome degree the antient laws for its baſis §. A far

* Formerly, while there were no regular tribunals, it might be that governors, who were every thing in their governments, or perhaps a voivode, might pronounce arbitrarily in many caſes. But ſuch things are no longer done.

† Great improvements are continually making in the laws, but there are many extant both antient and modern; therefore it is often ſaid in ukaſes and ordinances, that the proceeding is to be conformably with the laws of the empire, or in general according to the laws.

‡ It forms a quarto volume about an inch in thickneſs.

§ It refers back to the national-laws of tzar Ivan Vaſſillievitch, as then in being, but too rudely drawn up for the then

far greater number of laws are derived from Peter the great; for, beſides many particular ukaſes, and thoſe afterwards collected, all of which have the force of laws, ſeveral collections of his are extant, ſuch as, the general regulation; the privileges granted to mine-owners, to which the empreſs Anna afterwards annexed a mine-regulation; the ſpiritual-reglement, enlarging upon that which had been begun by tzar Ivan Vaſſillievitch, and continued by Alexey Michailovitch; the articles of war, &c. — But never did any of the ſovereigns apply their attention ſo much to legiſlation as Catharine II. from the very commencement of her reign, by whom were iſſued a great number of ſeparate ukaſes and ordinances as well as whole collections: among the latter may be claſſed the ordinances for the adminiſtration of the governments, the inſtruction, the charter granted to the nobility, the regulations for the police, for commerce, &c.

She exerted every means that law and equity ſhould every where have their courſe. Judges were appointed in the neighbourhood of every

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preſent times. Accordingly, the tzar called together his boyars, the patriarch, the metropolitans, archbiſhops, biſhops, and others, to take them into conſideration with him, who unanimouſly agreed to the preſent as the law of the land; and he iſſued his commands that it ſhould be brought into practice as the deciſive law.

place;

place; their duties were clearly preſcribed to them *, and they were brought to account for neglect. Every rank and ſtation knew its privileges and the bounds aſſigned to it. Wherever any defect was perceived, means were applied for remedying it according to the exigencies of the times and of the empire, and for improving and completing the ſyſtem of legiſlation.

Whatever irregularities and enormities have heretofore been committed, they certainly were not by far ſo frequent during the late reign; and her majeſty's orders were not only very ſtrict againſt every mode of corruption, fraud, and oppreſſion †, but by aſcertaining the pay of her officers and defining their duties, together with the employment of other means, ſhe effectually checked thoſe deplorable evils, and earneſtly endeavoured to prevent them entirely. So that it ſeems now to be morally impoſſible that ſuch acts of injuſtice and cruelty ſhould again be practiſed as are found in the hiſtory of many of her predeceſſors, and particularly in that of the empreſs Elizabeth.

* If the ordinances that have been publiſhed to that effect were faithfully complied with, there would certainly be no ground of complaint againſt the adminiſtration of government.

† We need only refer to the ukaſe of the 15th of Dec. 1763, for an account of the oppreſſions, &c. that gave riſe to it, in the empreſs's own words. See Life of Catharine II. vol. i. p. 314. 4th edit. See alſo p. 432 & ſqq.

Remarks on the Condition of the Subjects.

THAT in repreſenting the ſtate of a country and the nature of its government, a principal regard ſhould be had to the condition of the ſubjects needs no formal proof; it might indeed be conſidered in ſome degree as a political barometer. However, it forms an important object of political intereſt, whether we regard the ſovereign, the empire at large, or the individuals of which it is compoſed: it being of infinite moment to the firſt that the ſubjects ſhould be in an eaſy and proſperous ſtate, not merely from the generous ſentiment of humanity, but likewiſe becauſe the well-being of his government depends upon it; with the latter it frequently determines the nature of their lot, and fixes the degree of their patriotic ardour, the important ſource of numberleſs ſocial virtues.

It will not here be expected that the condition of the ſubjects ſhould be preſented in every point of view, or that an accurate deſcription ſhould be given of each particular people and of every claſs; which could not be done without tireſome repetitions and unprofitable amplifications, not to mention the almoſt inſurmountable difficulties we ſhould have to encounter in the attempt. It will be amply ſufficient if we confine ourſelves to two

two objects, the public burdens and the comforts of the individual; ſince nothing more can be expected from the happieſt and moſt beneficial form of government, than that it ſhould wiſely apportion the former, and promote the latter by the moſt efficacious means. Both together will furniſh us with ſome explanatory proofs and examples, from which ſuggeſtions will ariſe that may throw light on what has been advanced in the foregoing ſections. Such examples have, indeed, here and there been occaſionally ſcattered; but the importance of the ſubject demands, or at leaſt juſtifies me in attempting to give a more preciſe explication of it, eſpecially as foreigners are apt to entertain erroneous opinions on the condition of the ruſſian ſubjects, which can excite no ſurpriſe, as both antient and modern travellers, of whom many have paſſed no more than a few weeks in Ruſſia, or are only acquainted with the reſidence, have ſpread ſo many falſe reports concerning it.

If any ſhould think that theſe remarks would have been more properly interwoven with the particulars that have juſt been treated on inſtead of making them into a diſtinct ſection, they have only to conſider them under the two following heads, as a ſupplement to the foregoing ſections, in order that they may not be quite out of place.

1. PUBLIC IMPOSTS AND BURDENS ON THE SUBJECTS. After having already pointed out and

explained the greater part of them, it will be ſufficient now to make a cloſer application of them to ſome particular ranks, and add a few comments by way of illuſtration.

Certain public impoſts depend entirely on circumſtances, for inſtance, the ſtamped paper and the poſchlins, as well in law matters as in the ſale of a landed eſtate. To theſe we ſhall pay no regard, eſpecially as the great multitude, or the common people are not at all ſubject to them, inaſmuch as the boors poſſeſs no immoveable property; and, becauſe, when they have occaſion to prefer a petition or a complaint, or to apply to a court of juſtice, they are allowed to do it by word of mouth, in which neither poſchlin nor ſtamped paper are neceſſary *. — Neither can taxes which are in the nature of contracts or rents be properly conſidered in the number of public burdens. The crown-boors and the agricultural boors poſſeſs no landed property; for the land allotted to them they pay the obrok, or perform taſk-ſervice, or deliver a certain quantity of natural products, which may be conſidered as rent, which the boor,

* It is ſcarcely ever neceſſary but in juridical proceedings. In private bonds or obligations, &c. it depends entirely on the parties concerned whether they will uſe it or not. If not, then the proper ſtamped ſheet is only added when the writing is brought before a court of juſtice. This tax, therefore, is not here ſo burdenſome as in a country where a ſtamp is neceſſary to every trifling receipt.

whether

whether belonging to a private individual or to a nobleman, is bound to pay his landlord for the grounds he occupies: he has no need, therefore, of employing a capital for obtaining a piece of land, as in countries where the peaſant can purchaſe it only for a ſum of money. It is nearly the ſame when they ſet up bee-ſtages in a foreſt belonging to the crown, in conſideration of a certain yearly impoſt, &c.

Here we ſhould beſtow our attention on the proper taxes and burdens which are general and permanent, according to the different ranks and conditions. In general it is to be remarked, that their total amount cannot be aſcertained * even generally at ſo much per cent. excepting among the merchants, as they do not merely vary according to the ranks and provinces, but are very different in themſelves.

The nobleman, who, generally ſpeaking, pays no tax for any of his land which he occupies himſelf, nor even for his moveable property, ſhould reaſonably be conſidered according to the various relations in which he ſtands. — If he poſſeſs no male vaſſals, his fields, foreſts, mines, mills, fiſheries, &c, which he occupies with free or hired labourers, are as exempt from taxation as his per-

* In ſome countries of the continent the ſubject pays the twentieth pfennig, or even from thirty to forty per cent. on his profits in trade, &c. There is nothing of this ſort in Ruſſia.

ſon:

ſon: let him ſell what part of his foreſt, &c. he will, he pays no tax on the ſale; only if he ſell the foreſt itſelf, as a piece of ground, then the purchaſer (or he himſelf) muſt pay the * poſchlin. Such noblemen are not only in Little Ruſſia, and other places, but even in Great Ruſſia, where, however, they are not reckoned among the rich nobility, though many of them may poſſeſs conſiderable property.

On the other hand the nobleman who has vaſſals muſt furniſh recruits out of them. Indeed, as has been before obſerved, it falls upon his boors; but he, as lord of the manor, loſes of his number of men, conſequently, according to the phraſe here in uſe, a part of his immoveable property. This public burden is at times conſiderable †, and ſeems on one ſide to be heavier than in other europeaan countries; which the following inſtance may explain. The province of Ingria, which was formerly exempt from the levy of recruits, ever ſince the laſt war, has furniſhed annually one recruit out of every hundred ſouls, or male heads. As children and old men, even infirm and

* In order to ſave this, they frequently, particularly in Eſthonia, inſtead of making a ſale, enter into mortgages for a certain number of years.

† It is well known, not to be to the advantage of any country, that the nobility with large eſtates in land ſhould contribute nothing to the exigences of the ſtate, and be exempt from all public burdens.

decrepit

decrepit beggars, are included in this number, and always reckoned according to the laſt reviſion, though ſince that time many have died, deſerted, or been given as recruits; therefore ſometimes out of thirty able-bodied or working men according to their age, one recruit muſt be delivered. If the nobleman have none ſuch in his village, or is unwilling to part with them, he tries to buy them of ſome other nobleman, paying for them three hundred rubles, or even more. The crown reckons for each three hundred and ſixty rubles; at which price they may juſtly be eſtimated in regard to the public taxes, eſpecially as the delivery of them is attended with ſeveral expences *. Suppoſe the nobleman employs his boors, if he does not himſelf follow farming, only for the obrok, and is paid by each ſoul or male five rubles, then he raiſes from his village, conſiſting of one hundred ſouls, the annual ſum of five hundred rubles, or, by reaſon of the recruits already delivered, &c. not nearly ſo much. If he purchaſe the recruits required, or, which is the ſame thing, if he reckon them at the former price, he ſurrenders nearly two thirds of his income to the crown. — We ſhould, however, be apt to draw very erroneous concluſions were we to conſider

* The recruit is furniſhed with clothes, travelling-money, a ſtock of proviſions, &c. Sometimes a preſent is given to the receivers, (the officer and the ſurgeon, who muſt examine him,) as a bribe that they may not object to him.

the

the public burdens of the nobility only on this ſide. For, in the firſt place, moſt noblemen take the recruits out of their villages, without buying them, there being always people for that purpoſe*; conſequently, he loſes a man indeed, yet by him not about two thirds of his income, but only five rubles of the fixed yearly obrok. If he live not on his eſtates, or in his village, then he does not trouble his head about the delivery of recruits, but leaves the whole care of it to his boors, who are obliged to pay him yearly the full amount of the obrok, in common, clear of all deductions for the recruits delivered. 2. Many noblemen take from each ſoul a much larger obrok than five rubles, particularly when their boors are rich, or have found out the art of carrying on profitable trades, or they take in hand plots of ground which they cauſe to be tilled and cultivated by the corvée or feudal-ſervice of their boors; whereby their income amounts to much more than the five hundred rubles from each hundred ſouls. 3. In time of peace commonly no more than one recruit is demanded out of five hundred ſouls, and that not every year, but ſome-

* For this purpoſe, as in other countries, are taken ſuch as would come to no good, being addicted to drunkenneſs and thieving, &c. Many maſters give up their ſervants as recruits, inſtead of inflicting on them the puniſhment they have deſerved. Their place is ſoon ſupplied by births.

times

times after a long interval *: then the nobleman ſcarcely feels any burden at all, eſpecially as he has nothing to do with any other impoſt of the crown, even in war-time, &c. † What is this then in compariſon with the taxes in other countries!

We have before obſerved, that the nobility in Livonia, Eſthonia, and Finland, furniſh no recruits from their vaſſals, but in return are ſubject to various other public burdens and taxes. The latter are extended in Livonia even to ſome noble manorial grounds, ſuch as have been formerly occupied by boors, and others that paſs under ſeveral denominations.

2. The clergy, in regard to their perſons, are likewiſe exempt from taxes. Their ſtipends, which conſiſt in money, and in the country of corn and pieces of land, are raiſed by them free of all deduction. —That the ruſſian ſecular clergy give their ſons, when they have ſeveral, as recruits, has been already mentioned, though it is not to be conſidered as a burden, as they gradually riſe to be officers. Numbers of placemen and lutheran preachers, &c. in the baltic provinces, whoſe ſons are not required for military ſervice, put them into

* What is here ſaid of furniſhing recruits holds good in ſome reſpects of the crown-boors, &c. as far as they are liable to it.

† Frequently the boors pay the money for which the lord bought the recruits, becauſe otherwiſe he compels their ſons to go by drawing lots.

it

it of their own accord, either in the hope of ſpeedy advancement, or becauſe their circumſtances are too narrow to admit of their devoting them to a ſtudious life.

The livonian and eſthonian paſtorates, if poſſeſſing any freeholds in villages, are equally ſubject to the public burdens with the noble eſtates: previous to the year 1783 the eſthonian paſtorates, even though they had freehold villages belonging to them, had nothing to do with them.

3. Placemen and officers of the crown, &c. are in many countries obliged either to pay a certain annual tax upon their ſalaries, or at leaſt occaſionally a ſort of war-contribution *: nothing of this kind is known in Ruſſia. Only for the making out of patents, here, as elſewhere, certain fees are taken.

4. All literary men, who are not inrolled in any guild, and, beſide their learned profeſſion, as phyſicians, lawyers, &c. are not engaged in trade, are entirely exempt from taxes. The ſame holds good of artiſts, &c.

5. All people who live ſolely on the intereſt of their capital, and do not inſcribe themſelves in any guild, however large their income may be, pay no tax upon it whatever.

6. All inhabitants of towns poſſeſs their im-

* It has happened that an impoveriſhed government has paid the ſalaries in obligations alone, and demanded the tax upon [illegible] ſpecie.

movable

movable property free of all taxation, only bearing their quota where troops are quartered upon them, and are obliged, as in other countries, to contribute to the exigences of the town. — As burghers, in regard to the public taxes, which however are laid neither on the profits of their trade nor on their immovable property, they are divided into two claſſes, ſome paying the beforementioned per centage, and others the poll-tax. — The recruit-money paid by the ruſſian merchants, has likewiſe been noticed before.

7. Among the free-countrymen in regard to public taxes, there is, as above-ſaid, a great difference: ſome paying abſolutely nothing, but perform ſervice; others being ſubject to the poll-tax and the obrok, or tribute, or other pecuniary impoſts. So likewiſe it is in regard to recruits. — Menial ſervants, who in ſome countries are obliged to give a part of their hard-earned pittance of wages into the public treaſury, pay in Ruſſia, if free-born, only the uſual poll-tax; foreigners nothing at all.

8. Vaſſal-boors pay poll-tax and furniſh recruits. — The obrok of the crown-boors, as already remarked, is not to be conſidered as a public tax, but as a ſort of rent for the occupancy of the lands allotted to them, or for the permiſſion to follow any trade they pleaſe *.

Sometimes

* Rent is indeed by no means the proper term; but I know of no better. For even people who occupy no lands, are obliged

Sometimes cafes will happen, when a public tax ſeems to bear hard upon particular perſons, though it be otherwiſe in fact, or at leaſt no convenient means of altering it can be deviſed. This may be illuſtrated by an example. It was ordained, once for all, that the amount of the poll-tax calculated upon the reviſion for every village, eſtate, diſtrict, or houſe, ſhould be brought into the coffers of the crown unaltered till the next reviſion *; therefore the births in the interval occaſion no increaſe, and the deaths, impoveriſhments, deſertions, &c. no diminution of the ſum. This rule muſt be obſerved, as otherwiſe the collectors would have no more to do than every moment to alter their liſts, books, and accounts. Every one will allow that this immutability is highly neceſſary; and, foraſmuch as commonly more perſons are born than die, it is beneficial to the ſubjects. Only on applying it to particular inſtances it will not alleviate every one. So, perhaps, the nobleman, the man of letters, or ſome other, cauſes his free hired

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liged ſometimes to pay the obrok, which they ſtrive to earn by all ſorts of hard-labour: if they be beggars, yet the community or the village muſt pay for them.

* Beſides, every community is allowed to collect this ſum by a prudent diſtribution. Thus, for inſtance, the magiſtrate ſees that the richer inhabitants contribute ſomewhat more, and the poorer rather leſs. The nobleman may proceed in like manner in his village and demeſnes. Conſequently many burghers or boors pay a larger poll-tax than is impoſed on them by the crown.

ſervants

ſervants to be enregiſtered at the reviſion; but after a while they chooſe to enliſt as recruits, and therefore ſerve only the crown; yet the maſter muſt pay the poll-tax for them till the next reviſion. The caſe is the ſame with artificers, if their apprentices enliſt for ſoldiers. So it is likewiſe with criminals condemned to the public works. — Here it is really too glaring at firſt ſight; but the crown can do no otherwiſe, or the immutability which we have admitted to be neceſſary would hourly fall to pieces. Moreover, it ſhould not be forgotten, that burden and benefit proceed with equal ſteps; for, if the tradeſman takes an apprentice who was born after the reviſion, he pays no poll-tax for him. Theſe inſtances may perhaps ſuggeſt ſimilar caſes to ſome readers.

Several provinces have alſo public burdens peculiar to them, which may be regarded as taxes, ſuch as, maintaining the poſt-ſtations, repairing the highways, &c.

Sometimes the taxes and public burdens wear an entirely different aſpect. Indeed that has not happened, as far as I know, in Great-Ruſſia for a long time, except in the obrok of the crown-boors: but in Little-Ruſſia, and with the old ſlobode regiments, a pecuniary tax and afterwards the poll-tax were introduced in lieu of the former kozak-ſervice. The latter has likewiſe been carried into Livonia, Eſthonia, and Finland. — Ingria formerly was not called upon for recruits, for

mending the roads and maintaining the poſt-ſtations; but was obliged to furniſh a certain quantity of forage for the horſe-guards. The latter is now aboliſhed, and the poll-tax of one hundred and fifty kopeeks on every male is introduced, with the obligation to keep the roads in order at their own expence, and latterly the delivery of recruits. But then the proximity to the reſidence furniſhes them with opportunity for making great returns for their products.

From this ſhort repreſentation it ſatisfactorily appears, that the ordinary public taxes of the empire are very various; that, taken on an average, they admit of no per cent calculation; that they are liable to ſeveral alterations according to times and circumſtances; and that even the delivery of recruits is not of the ſame nature throughout.

As we ſhould here particularly conſider the great body of the yeomanry or country-folk, it is now to be obſerved, that their real neceſſaries are ſubject to no taxes, becauſe in all Ruſſia there is no ſuch thing as exciſe*. What the common man wants for his nouriſhment and cloathing, generally conſiſts in the products of his rural œconomy, on which, in many diſtricts he pays no tax whatever, and in others only a moderate tri-

* None upon the meat or the cattle that he ſells, on the malt, bread, fiſh, &c. which the proprietor conſumes, or which are bought.

bute

bute to the land-owner for the occupancy of his farm. Salt is indeed a monopoly of the crown, yet, as obſerved before, it is very cheap; brandy on the other hand, is dear; but many of the common people do not hold it to be indiſpenſably neceſſary to them; others make it themſelves for their own uſe, as the kozaks; or, on a failure of their crops of corn, to ſupply the place of it, prepare a ſtrong liquor of milk, as ſeveral of the uncivilized nomadic nations, as may be ſeen, among others, from the writings of the academicians. — For the earning of money to pay the pecuniary taxes a thouſand means preſent themſelves to all who have a diſpoſition to work and to careful œconomy. Huſbandry, the breeding of cattle, the foreſts, the culture of hops, bee-ſtages, &c. yield the boor, beſide the ſupply of the neceſſaries of life, a conſiderable ſurplus for ſale: beſides, he ſometimes goes himſelf, or ſends his well-grown ſon, if there be no manufactories in the neighbourhood, to ſuch places as afford work and profit, either as a fiſherman or a boatman on the rivers, or as a bricklayer or carpenter, or to cut ditches and water-courſes, &c. — In general the taxes are not oppreſſive; and thoſe that ſeem to be ſo, or are not perfectly agreeable to the ſubject, cannot, as we have ſeen before, be conveniently altered. But that the ſubjects, if they will, may live comfortably according to their ſtation, ſhall

be more accurately, yet briefly shewn under the head immediately following.

2. *General welfare of the Subjects.*

In every country, and among all ranks are to be found rich and poor persons, whose welfare is generally computed by their circumstances or earnings. That there are very rich people in Russia is known to every one. But even to the poorer sort it is not difficult to procure themselves in a short time a sort of competence, as sources of profit are open to all ranks, such as, for the nobility, the military, and civil offices; for the burghers an extensive commerce, manufactures, and all kinds of service, &c. for the country people a prodigious variety of products, advantageous employments, and the like.

That both the nobility and the burghers live actually in affluence, is manifest from the luxury that every where prevails. Whoever has travelled through Russia must have observed in the houses of the country nobleſſe that are not quite fallen to decay, a very plentiful table, neat and handsome dresses, a competent number of servants, and all other things in proportion. In the towns the wealthy merchants live not only in a decent manner, but even in a grand style. The same may be affirmed of a number of tradesmen in several districts, particularly in the provinces of the Baltic.

Many

Many of the latter who go about in a plain and rather humble garb, yet conſume more than their equals in many other countries *.

But we are here particularly ſpeaking of the claſs of countrymen. The ruſſian boor, even the vaſſal of the nobleman, lives very decently in his houſe, has a ſufficiency of wholeſome food, is neatly dreſſed, puts commonly two or three diſhes on his table, and even accumulates a trifling capital, though, as it is not ſecured to him and may be taken from him, he frequently buries it in the ground. Beſides, we have already named ſome noble villages where the boors diſplay an opulence which would be looked for in vain in other countries: and ſuch villages are in great numbers. For judging of the reſt one inſtance may ſuffice; and that for the ſake of variety ſhall be a crown-village. The large village Meſen, on the banks of the river of the ſame name, fifty verſts from its exit into a great arm of the White-ſea, ſtands in an ungrateful ſoil, where nature has acted the part of a ſtepmother: for it contains nothing but foreſt; only a trifle of barley is ſown yearly, but

* At the tables of the german tradeſmen in Livonia are commonly ſeen more than one diſh, and among them ſome that are coſtly, for inſtance, chickens, veniſon, and veal, when they are not uncommonly dear; they generally (excepting the very pooreſt) drink coffee twice a day, and make punch on Sundays; though both theſe liquors are at preſent rather expenſive. But their profits are high.

which ſeldom ripens, and is only uſed for the ſtraw in foddering the cattle. Nevertheleſs the boors here have always been rich people. Every man has a houſe to live in, which, though only of wood, yet is roomy, and conſiſts of two ſtories; the lower ſerving for the purpoſes of houſekeeping, but the upper containing ſeveral handſome apartments fitted up with paper-hangings, and ſupplied with engliſh furniture; many of them keep above one hundred ſervants, from the Laplanders of thoſe parts, who wait upon them with their rein-deer. Theſe people derive their riches from the fiſheries on the White-ſea and the Frozen-ocean; but their greateſt profits ariſe from the capture of whales. Their products of this nature are ſold to the Engliſh, moſtly thoſe who reſide at Archangel; from which place they obtain their neceſſaries: by the road they have ſeven hundred verſts to go thither, but by ſea only half that diſtance. The people of this country are well-built, but ſuffer much in their eyes from the reflection of the ſun-beams by the ice *. Their village, on account of its magnitude and the opulence that prevails there, has latterly been erected into a circle-town †. — The ruſſian and finniſh boors in

* Some are almoſt blind by it at thirty years of age.

† Over againſt this village, on the other ſide of the river, the Engliſh had great concerns in the reign of the empreſs Elizabeth, where they conſtructed ſaw-mills, iron-forges, with a great number of hammers worked by water, &c. which are now all gone to ruin.

the

the province of Ingria, or what is now the government of St. Peterſburg, are not by far to be reckoned among the wealthieſt, ſince the greater part of them, beſide the taxes in kind and in ſpecie, are obliged to perform feudal ſervice to the nobles of thoſe parts: but all of them have a decent income and live in a kind of affluence. — The ruſſian boor may ſoon become rich, as he underſtands the art of making profit of every thing, and whenever he pleaſes of being content with a little *; for all his clothes coſt him nothing, conſiſting merely of what is manufactured at home; and his diet, which, by the way, during the long faſts is extremely meagre, is ſupplied to him from his husbandry.

Among the very numerous nobility many poſſeſs fortunes of a hundred thouſand or of five hundred thouſand rubles, and ſometimes more; but the generality may have a fortune of between thirty thouſand and a hundred thouſand rubles. Others, who have no landed property, or but little, and perhaps are even in debt, find various means of acquiring a decent income, either in the military or civil ſervice, or by farming. Thoſe who are called poor, would not be thought ſo in

* A ſtriking example of this is obſervable in the ruſſian ſoldier, who, from his extremely ſmall pay, and his exactly meaſured allowance of proviſion, frequently by œconomy and good management accumulates a little capital from his ſavings.

Saxony,

ſervants*; he is commonly the friend and confident of the noblemen of his pariſh, and his houſe the uſual reſort of them; no man of rank need be aſhamed of driving in his coach and pair, often his coach and four†. His paſtorate is equal in all reſpects, even in privileges and immunities, to any nobleman's eſtate in his neighbourhood: the income of a larger benefice upon a near calculation may amount to fifteen hundred or two thouſand, and a moderate one to about eight hundred rubles; yet there are a few ſmaller, which are likewiſe more productive than the little manors, becauſe they have not only the benefit of their own huſbandry, but alſo a good revenue in corn and money from the pariſh. — The livonian advocates are not wont to draw up a writing, as in Saxony, for a few groſches: the ordinary fee being ſeldom confined to five or ten rubles, and for inſtituting a trifling proceſs, or for preparing a covenant, contract, teſtament, &c.

* When he has any paſtorate-boors, he is, like the nobleman on his demeſne, their maſter and judge, takes from them as many domeſtics as he pleaſes, and has his huſbandry performed by their feudal ſervice. If he have no boors belonging to him, then the pariſh muſt find him a proper number of domeſtics, and beſides them, the neceſſary hands for his huſbandry without wages or recompence; he likewiſe receives his firewood of them, free of expence.

† To ſee him going about on foot, as in Germany, would be a ſtrange ſight.

they

they are uſually paid from fifty to a hundred rubles: it is not then to be wondered at that they drive about in ſuch carriages as they go in, in Saxony, to the privy-council; and, that, after practiſing a few years, they purchaſe a noble demeſne. — The phyſician, even the ſurgeon, who frequently acts in the capacity of the former, is paid for an ordinary cure from thirty to two hundred rubles; it is common for a wealthy nobleman to make an agreement with his phyſician, whom he always ſends for from town in his own carriage, and pays him for the whole cure five hundred rubles. When a ſurgeon inoculates the boor-children in a diſtrict, he generally may expect a recompence of eighty or a hundred rubles. Beſides the phyſician and the ſurgeon who are paid by the crown for every circle, it is uſual for a nobleman or a pariſh to keep a phyſician of their own, to whom they give a fixed ſalary of three hundred or four hundred rubles. — The common ſalary of a domeſtic tutor about thirty years ago was a hundred or a hundred and fifty rubles; at preſent in the houſes of noblemen it is generally three hundred or four hundred rubles, to which tea, coffee, the uſe of the carriage, attendance, waſhing, and even conſiderable preſents are added *. Nor need this be a matter of ſur-

* The muſic-maſter at the manor-houſe uſually gets as much. The poor nobleman conſequently feels himſelf rather pinched, when his children are grown up to require a domeſtic tutor.

priſe, as the nobleman pays his ſteward, who can only write and keep accounts, with free board, &c. a hundred or a hundred and fifty rubles per annum.

Owing to the flouriſhing ſtate of commerce, in the maritime towns many merchants are ſeen who poſſeſs capitals of ſome hundred thouſands of rubles. It may be advanced in general that this opulence would be more common, if they were fewer in number, and their expences * bore a nearer proportion with their profits †. — The tradeſmen earn a great deal of money with little trouble ‡.

The

* It is only in ſmall towns that the merchant's wife goes on foot to church; in the larger ſhe has her coach after the neweſt faſhion, and in the houſe as much magnificence is diſplayed frequently as in that of the wealthy nobleman.

† The ruſſian traders in the livonian towns, are a proof of this. As their expence in cloaths, eating, carriage, &c. is far ſmaller, they can afford to ſell their commodities much cheaper, accordingly they make quick returns, and ſoon find themſelves in good circumſtances.

‡ A few examples from the ſmall country-towns will ſet this matter in a perſpicuous light. The ſhoemaker takes for a pair of ſhoes, when all the leather is found him, merely for the making between fifty kopeeks and one ruble; for a pair of boots 1½ or two rubles; the taylor for a plain garment from three to five rubles; the joiner for a common cheſt ſmeared with varniſh, for which the wood coſts him between thirty and fifty kopeeks, from five to ten rubles; the wheelwright for a pair of coach-wheels, the wood coſting him forty kopeeks, gets between

The livonian and eſthonian peaſantry are generally thought to be, if not miſerable, at leaſt poor: and many of them may be ſo termed, if we conſider their vaſſalage and their feudal burdens, or their dwellings, nouriſhment, and houſhold furniture. The induſtrious and frugal, however, live upon the produce of their agriculture in as comfortable a manner as the nature of their feudal conſtitution will admit, if the boundleſs avarice or inſenſibility of a proprietor do not cruſh them by exorbitant impoſts and feudal burdens. Among the Lettes are boors who feel ſome conſequence by their riches; and among the Eſthonians are boor's wives who wear ſilver necklaces and ſtomachers to the value of fifty rubles; and among both nations ſome who eat their own good houſhold bread the whole year through, with a diſh of meat beſides, have a conſiderable quantity of live ſtock, and lay by a ſmall capital ſum of money, (ſometimes, as was before obſerved,

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tween three and four rubles; the tanner for a bullock's hide which he buys raw for three or four rubles, is paid eight or ten rubles; the ſmith for an ordinary padlock will have from one to three rubles, &c. — But then in what manner do theſe people live? Expenſive victuals, coffee twice a day, (which here coſts at preſent forty-eight to fifty-two kopeeks per pound,) entertainments, parties of pleaſure, &c. are extremely common. The wife goes gaily dreſſed, and ſeldom condeſcends to do any of the houſhold buſineſs, but leaves it all to her maids.

bury it in the ground,) or let it out upon intereſt. Many of them might live more commodiouſly than in the wretched ſmoky rooms which they inhabit, as ſome of the ſubſtantial peaſants actually do in chambers with neat little windows; but they had in general much rather adhere to the old manners of their fathers *. On eſtates belonging to the crown, where the impoſts and feudal ſervices are accurately defined, the boor, when his huſbandry ſucceeds, lives contented and happy; and many of the private landlords act the part of a father to the people on their demeſnes. — Some writers ſeem to imagine the Eſthonian to be deſtitute of the finer feelings of our nature and a demi-brute; but thouſands of examples ſhew that nature has not dealt unkindly with them, though in quickneſs of intellect they are far below the Ruſſians.

The generality of the kozaks enjoy not only the neceſſaries but the accommodations and comforts of life. In the parts about the Don eaſe and affluence are every where ſeen; and the kozaks of the Ural uſually paſs their time in idleneſs and yet in plenty, from the riches they obtain by means of the productive fiſheries on that river.

* The Greenlander is much better pleaſed with his filthy earth-hole than with a fine edifice in Copenhagen.

It

It may probably not be unacceptable to find here a ſomewhat more circumſtantial account of a very remote province, that of Nertſchinſk, which to my knowledge has not yet been deſcribed by any traveller as to its proſperity. The people there pay, according to the nature of their condition and conſtitution, the uſual public taxes, either by tribute or money. This they derive, as well as all other neceſſaries, from agriculture, the chace, the fiſhery, working in the mines, the trade of carriers, the ſale of their products to the ruſſian merchants who go thither for them, and their trade with China, when it is open. Some of theſe ſources of gain require to be a little enlarged on here; firſt remarking, that ruſſian and foreign goods, particularly linen, are annually imported and conſumed in thoſe parts to the amount of above one hundred thouſand rubles. On the other hand, the country people, beſide their own conſumption, get a net profit in money, among other things from: 1. agriculture; in good years the boors ſell to the mine-works at the four towns thereabouts, and to the troops on the frontiers, annually to the amount of twenty thouſand to twenty-five thouſand rubles in corn; 2. from the trade of carriers, as they convey all the furs of thoſe parts to ruſſian towns on account of the merchants*, or bring back goods from

* Some even carry at times the noble metals obtained there to the place of their deſtination.

them, by which they earn every year from eight to ten thouſand rubles; 3. from the trade to China, when it goes forward, whither they tranſport annually about two thouſand horſes, nearly the ſame number of horned cattle, and as many yufts or hides, and ſeveral thouſand lamb-ſkins; 4. from the trade to Ruſſia in which they only diſpoſe of furs: this amounted (beſides the tribute paid by the Tunguſes and Burræts) from the year 1785 to 1789, one year with another, annually from about one hundred and twenty thouſand to two hundred and forty-thouſand ſquirrel-ſkins, at one hundred or one hundred and fifty rubles the thouſand; one hundred and eighty to two hundred and forty ſables, at five to fifteen rubles a piece, rarely twenty to twenty-five rubles*: two hundred to 350 fox-ſkins, at 1½ or two rubles a piece; one hundred to one hundred and fifty bear-ſkins, at four to fifteen rubles a † piece; three hundred to four hundred wolf-ſkins, at 1½

* The da-urian ſables and ſquirrels are reckoned to be the beſt in the empire, accordingly they are dearer than thoſe from other parts. For this reaſon the Chineſe, who have the art of colouring them, buy, not theſe but the worſe and therefore cheaper ones from Irkutſk. For ſome time paſt it has been obſerved, that the ſables and ſquirrels retire thence to the river Amoor: perhaps on account of the number of hunters.

† The latter price is paid by the ruſſian merchants that come thither only for thoſe with ſilvery hair, which however are very ſcarce.

to three rubles each; fifty to ſixty lynx-ſkins, from five to eight rubles each *: ten thouſand to fifteen thouſand hare-ſkins, at forty to fifty rubles the thouſand †; thirty to forty glutton-ſkins, from four to eight rubles a piece; ſix thouſand to eight thouſand black and white lamb-ſkins, a black at fifty to ſeventy, a white at twenty to thirty-five kopecks, &c.

As agriculture here is very inviting on account of the profit it brings, the Tunguſes and Buraets have begun to addict themſelves to it, and thus open an advantageous proſpect for futurity. Some of them alſo attempt to gain a livelihood as carriers.

That amidſt ſo many means of gaining money the people muſt in general be in eaſy circumſtances, is apparent to the moſt careleſs obſerver; beſides, the conduct of the old ruſſian inhabitants is a proof of it, many of whom are cenſured by the academicians in the account of their travels for living in idleneſs and ‡ debauchery. It was for this reaſon that a very reſpectable perſon,

* But when the commerce at Kiachta flouriſhes, they are worth in trade thirteen or fourteen rubles a piece.

† The ſkins of bears, wolves, lynxes, foxes, badgers, and marmottes, are worſe in hair than thoſe in other parts of Ruſſia; but thoſe of the hare are as good as anywhere elſe.

‡ The old inhabitants who follow huſbandry particularly are become very negligent and great ſpendthrifts by their affluence.

perſon, who has a thorough knowledge of the diſtrict of Nertſchinſk, mentions in a letter, that it would be of great ſervice to the province and the agriculture of thoſe parts, as well as highly improving and encouraging to the other inhabitants, if the crown would ſend about 1000 or more good ruſſian boors to ſettle there: as they would ſet a fine example of induſtry to the uncivilized natives, and teach them to carry on huſbandry to greater advantage, and might perhaps gradually inſpire their elder brethren of thoſe countries, or at leaſt their poſterity, with more œconomical diſpoſitions.

Foreign gentlemen coming to Ruſſia have perhaps entered a peaſant's houſe by the road, and at the ſight of ſome objects have been led to think the condition of the ruſſian boors to be extremely wretched and miſerable*. They found, for example, no feather-beds; as the ruſſian boor ſleeps on a hard bench, his coat or a ſort of rug ſerving him both for coverlet and pillow. But the common ruſſian, who is inured to this from his very infancy, and generally has nothing

affluence. Even the common people there drink a prodigious quantity of tea; each perſon ſeveral cans of it a day.

* Some travellers, from ſeeing particularly poor peaſants or villages in Livonia and Eſthonia, draw concluſions concerning all the country people of the empire; but they are groundleſs.

at all to cover him, requires no feather-bed; otherwiſe he could ſoon provide himſelf with one, ſince he is neither in want of tame poultry nor wild fowl. — Others have pronounced the ruſſian merchants, from their ſimple national habit, to be deſtitute of propriety in dreſs; and have exclaimed againſt their ordinary favourite meſſes, which indeed may not be highly palatable to every foreign depraved appetite. But this way of reaſoning ſurely is not juſt. Who will preſume to ſet himſelf up for a competent judge of taſte for other men? If the ruſſian merchant content himſelf with a cheap national dreſs, which however is by no means always the caſe, he is certainly to be commended for it; at the ſame time his wife perhaps wears as many genuine pearls upon her head-dreſs (that being a very uſual ornament) as would buy him ſeveral handſome ſuits of cloaths.

The moderate taxes, the cheap living, the excellent and numerous products, the contentedneſs of the people, and the good regulations adopted through the empire, afford to every one who conducts himſelf well in his ſtation of life, ſufficient means for acquiring a competency. The majority of the ruſſian ſubjects fare better in their way than the great multitude in France, Germany, Sweden, and ſeveral other countries. That the ſame may be ſaid of all claſſes, needs not here be repeated, it having already been made apparent. — Where

any deficiency is perceivable *, the fault is not to be imputed to the public inſtitutions, laws, taxes, and form of government; but to particular circumſtances and unavoidable combinations, often ſolely to the ſuffering ſubject himſelf, who may be either regardleſs of his duties, or negligent in his accounts, or perhaps has taken up a profeſſion for which he had not the proper talents †. But it is indiſputable, that in Ruſſia, by a propriety of behaviour, the foreigner, as well as the native, may ſoon procure a decent livelihood.

In ſome countries authors have attempted to calculate the whole national wealth, or at leaſt the amount of all the natural products, and to aſcertain what portion of it falls to the ſhare of every individual. Theſe exerciſes may be an amuſement for idle hours, but ſeldom afford ſatisfaction to the man of ſcience.

* As is the caſe with numbers of vaſſals whoſe hard lot it is to belong to very ſevere landlords; or with tradeſmen who experience a want of cuſtomers, or with a decayed merchant, &c.

† This may ſerve as a hint to ſome coloniſts that are diſſatisfied with their condition, who having obtained parcels of land, have neither inclination nor abilities to cultivate them, and therefore continue as poor as at their firſt coming. It is applicable to many Italians and others, who would nowhere procure a decent livelihood were they to travel the whole world over.

VIEW

OF THE

RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

BOOK IX.

ERECTION OF THE VICEROYALTIES.

SECTION I.

Conſtitution of the Governments.

In the ruſſian empire were many governments ſo exceedingly extenſive, that in ſuperficial contents they were not equalled by any kingdom in Europe. In theſe the governor was greatly overburdened with buſineſs: the office of judge, the police, the levying of the taxes, providing for internal and external ſecurity, and the ſuperintendence of a thouſand other matters reſted perſonally on him: ſo that it was impoſſible for one man to conduct theſe multifarious concerns with due ex-

actitude, especially as there were neither courts of justice nor boards of affairs. The empress Catharine II. therefore conceived the salutary design of giving her empire a totally different form; by dividing it into several more proportionate governments, and these again into so many circles: separating the business of each by assigning to all their particular courts. This was effected by the erection of viceroyalties*, of which it will be necessary to give some account in the present work.

What the empress had principally in view by this alteration, were a more facile and impartial administration of justice, greater regularity, uniformity in proceedings, putting a check upon the arbitrary authority of an arrogant and haughty commander, providing security for upright men in office†, to bring redress and relief within the reach of every one, the obviating of many oppressive grievances, to introduce improvement into several classes of the people, to promote the

* The book containing all her precepts to this end came out under the title of, Her imperial majesty Catharine II.'s ordinances for the administration of the governments of the russian empire. St. Petersburg, 1775. The second part was published in 1780.

† Honest men, even governors, if they refused to attach themselves to a powerful party were formerly by no means safe, as was seen in the case of governor Wolff, and afterwards in that of count Sievers.

circu-

circulation of money, to obtain a more convenient vent for the products of the country, among many other advantages. — She therefore ſpared no pains in providing a remedy for every defect, and that law and equity might be every where diſpenſed. The annual coſt to the crown in the pay of judges and placemen in the civil department had been immenſe. Now juſtice was to be adminiſtered without fee or reward: therefore all perquiſites of office were ſtrictly forbidden, inſpectors of judges and guardians of the laws were appointed, and bribery prohibited under heavy penalties. On the eſtabliſhment of theſe governments, tumultuous deciſions or arbitrary ſentences were no longer to be dreaded; ſuits now were carried on in due courſe of law; many controverſies were ſatisfactorily compromiſed by the court of conſcience; and people taken into cuſtody were never in danger of being forgotten by a careleſs judge, as all other cauſes muſt give way to criminal examinations, and certain officers were obliged frequently now to viſit the priſons.

A beneficial inſtitution like this, which held out ſo many advantages, was received with joy by the whole nation *, which had never till now had

* From both antient and modern hiſtory we learn that in many countries new inſtitutions, though proceeding from the pureſt motives, have ſometimes occaſioned very alarming diſturbances, ſo great as to induce the ſovereign to retract the ſalutary

had a proper juridical conſtitution *. — Some at firſt apprehended that ſo many poſts in the multitude of viceroyalties would occaſion almoſt inſuperable difficulties, eſpecially in thoſe diſtricts where there were ſcarcely any nobles at all; but experience ſhewed the contrary: it was found, that, beſides various other perſons who had before filled civil offices, there were officers enough, who were already out of the ſervice, or had given in their reſignation, and were very capable of being appointed to the new ſtations †. — In ſhort, it is ſufficiently preſcribed in the afore-cited ordinances, at what time and how long the courts ſhould hold their ſittings; and when and by whom

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ſalutary innovations. But not in Ruſſia: the ſubjects in all places received the new conſtitution with grateful applauſe. Some provinces ſeemed at firſt to apprehend an injury to their privileges by it; but they were ſoon ſhewn that they would be gainers by the admiſſion of it. Conſequently they never proceeded to murmurs, much leſs to open reſiſtance.

* A few provinces are an exception to this, as thoſe of the Baltic, and in ſome meaſure the malo-ruſſian; but the adminiſtration of juſtice was in all extremely defective.

† They ſuited the ruſſian nation in all departments. But that country in general is a proof that the juridical-office may be well and truly adminiſtered without previous academical preparation, or without having belonged to a college of law. Even mere writers have been often appointed to ſecretariates.

the

the election of the judges ſhould be made*. That the places of moſt importance ſhould be filled by the empreſs herſelf, others by the ſenate, ſome by the governor, many by the nobility of the government or the circle, &c. as alſo by whom propoſals ſhould be made, is clearly aſcertained in thoſe ordinances, to which the curious on this ſubject are referred. But a few other objects demand here our farther notice.

Every government was to conſiſt of between 300,000 and 400,000 perſons of the male ſex. This however is not to be an undeviating rule; in many their numbers are far leſs, and in others much more. Each has its own governor and vice-governor; but a general governor is appointed commonly over two, ſeldom over three governments. Each, according to its extent and population, is divided into ſeveral circles; yet many that are of ſuch large dimenſions as to require it, are formed into two or more provinces, and each of them again into ſeveral circles. To a circle or

* The juridical perſons in the circles, as well as in the towns, even in ſome of the ſuperior courts, were choſen every three years. Some have thought theſe frequent changes might prevent the judge from acquiring ſufficient experience, and thus the ſecretary, who is never changed, would ſoon gain an aſcendancy. But this ſurmiſe is unfounded. The electors may chooſe the judge afreſh if he deſerve their confidence; but no one dare ever abuſe his power. Formerly the judge was permanent in Livonia and Eſthonia, but the ſecretary often had a preponderance.

diſtrict

diſtrict from 20,000 to 30,000 head of males are computed: though neither is this an invariable rule*. Each has its government-town† where the chief magiſtracy, namely, the general governor and the governor, together with the ſuperior courts, hold their ſeſſions; but a circle-town is aſſigned to every circle from which it takes its name, and where the circle officers, or at leaſt their chanceries, are ſtationed: though other towns may lie within a circle, which then have their own town-magiſtracy, but no circle-court. — The officers have their ſalaries and rank allotted to them: only ſome ſerve without pay, as, the government-marſhals and circle-marſhals, as likewiſe in the towns, the town-chief, the oral judge, &c. — The officers and courts appointed to a viceroyalty are the following:

1. The GENERAL-GOVERNOR‡: who is in a manner the ſuperintendant of all the officers of his viceroyalty; but neither judge nor legiſlator; though in the deliberations of the magiſtrates, at

* Thus there are circles containing not near ſo many, for inſtance, that of Veiſſenſtein in the government of Reval, having only about 12,000.

† Commonly the government takes its name from it; though there are a few exceptions, as Caucaſus and Taurida, likewiſe the government of Ekatarinoſlaf and that of Perme.

‡ At the beginning we ſometimes heard of viceroys, which title ſtands in the above-mentioned ordinances, with that of a general-governor. At preſent the laſt alone is uſed.

which

which he preſides, any regulations which are thought expedient, may be enacted. He can neither levy taxes on the people, nor inflict puniſhments, though he orders the execution of the ſentences judicially pronounced. In ſubordination to him are not only the commandants of all the fortreſſes within his government, but alſo in military proceedings the troops that are there with their commander or chef-de-diviſion, even though the latter have precedence of him in point of ſeniority in the ſervice*. — Thus the general governors are on one ſide armed with great power, but on the other have bounds preſcribed to them, that they cannot arbitrarily commit injuſtice. They are in ſome ſenſe under the authority of the ſenate, which however can only demand account of them, not puniſh† them, but only reprimand the

* Some few have even a diviſion, or a part of the army, as actually commanding generals, under their orders; moſt of them are tranſplanted, as it were, from the military to the civil ſtate. The apprehenſion leſt ſome one or other of them in the remote provinces ſhould in time to come prove dangerous, is without foundation, as not only the army is divided into ſeveral corps or diviſions, but the imperial-cheft in the government is never entruſted to the general-governor. — A wiſe and vigilant ſovereign will, moreover, always take care to maintain all in proper equipoiſe.

† This is a very prudent regulation; for in a former reign it might have happened occaſionally that the conſideration, repoſe, and perſonal ſafety of an upright governor were brought into

the magiſtracy. — It is commonly a general field-marſhal or a general in chief that is raiſed to this very important and honourable dignity*. Over and above the ample ſalary according to his rank, he alſo receives a conſiderable ſum for the expences of his table†.

2. The GOVERNOR, likewiſe a perſonage of great conſequence, who not only ſteps into the place of the general-governor, when he is abſent, but of himſelf has alſo a conſiderable influence in all concerns of the government. He conducts the viceroyalty; calls every officer to account; appoints to a variety of poſts; what he orders muſt be executed, though the council ſhould be of a different opinion‡; he is alſo the ſuperior in the college of general proviſion, likewiſe ſpecial

into great danger. — It could alſo happen that the ſenate might be prompted to teſtify its diſpleaſure againſt a general-governor.

* At times alſo this important office is filled by a lieutenant-general; though commonly not as actual general-governor, but only as a ſubſtitute for him.

† The table-money uſed commonly to be five hundred rubles a month; but the preſent commander in Moſco and its government receives in conſequence of an immennoi ukaſe of the 19th of February 1790, beſides the full military pay, with the rations according to the character he fills, a monthly allowance of one thouſand rubles table-money.

‡ In that caſe, however, they may and are obliged to deliver their reaſons.

inſpector

inſpector of all ſchools, &c. — This place is uſually filled by a lieutenant-general or a major-general*. Over and above his pay, he receives alſo table-money†.

3. The VICE-GOVERNOR or lieutenant-governor, is preſident in the finance-chamber; but when the general-governor and the governor are both abſent, he ſupplies their place. This poſt is occupied by perſons from the military and from the civil departments.

We come now to the ſeveral courts and boards, each having its chancery-officers:

1. The VICEROYALTY-GOVERNMENT, in which the general-governor, the governor, and two counſellors have their ſeats; they promulgate laws, ordinances, &c. ſee to the exact obſervance of them, provide for ſecurity and order, make out writs of arreſt and execution, &c.

2. The COURT OF JUSTICE, which, from the words of the Ordinances, may be regarded in a twofold capacity; it being divided into two de-

* Or it is executed by a perſon from the civil ſtate, viz. a privy-counſellor or a ſtate counſellor, as is at preſent the caſe in the government of Novgorod. — Sometimes governors are tranſlated from one government into another.

† In many governments the ſalary is 2250 rubles, in others only 1800. There is a like variation in regard to the table-money: here and there the income ariſing from a certain number of crown-boors is allotted to it; ſome governors receive monthly three hundred, others only one hundred and fifty rubles.

partments,

partments, whereof one determines in penal cauſes, and the other in civil ſuits: each conſiſts of a preſident, two counſellors, and two aſſeſſors. — It is the ſupreme court of the viceroyalty; it receives orders only from the monarch and from the ſenate, but not from the viceroyalty-government. In penal caſes it paſſes the final ſentence, which is then ſubmitted to the *general-governor. All appeals from the ſtatute-court, the court of wards, and the magiſtracy of the † government, go to the court of juſtice ‡, whoſe ſentence is executed, even in caſes when the party ſubmitting, or diſſatisfied with the decree, carries the appeal to the ſenate §. — Ingroſſations or public bond-

* If he think the ſentence wrong, he can defer its execution; if juſt, he orders it: he has no right arbitrarily to alter it.

† Whoever appeals from theſe courts, muſt not only declare upon oath that he believes his cauſe to be juſt, but alſo muſt depoſit one hundred rubles ſuccumbence-money, which he forfeits if the verdict be fully confirmed. If he can bring proof that from poverty he is unable to lay down that ſum, he is excuſed. It is farther ſettled in the Ordinances how much the ſum in litigation muſt amount to, for giving a right of appeal; and how the ſuccumbence-money muſt be applied in caſe of its falling to the court.

‡ In the government of Reval it is vulgarly called the tribunal, and its members counſellors of the tribunal.

§ On making this appeal, together with the abovementioned oath, a depoſit of two hundred rubles ſuccumbence-money muſt be made.

debts

debts are done here, if amounting to upwards of one hundred rubles.

3. The FINANCE-CHAMBER takes care of the crown-incomes and taxes of the inhabitants, the monopolies of brandy and ſalt, alſo the crown-mines, if any be there; has the inſpection of the accounts of the population, of public buildings, of the cuſtoms, payment of the fixed ſalaries, &c. The vice-governor, or in his abſence the œconomy-director, preſides in it: there is likewiſe a treaſurer of the government.

4. The COLLEGE OF GENERAL PROVISION directs its attention to ſalutary and beneficial inſtitutions, to ſchools*, hoſpitals, poor-houſes, infirmaries, work-houſes, &c. Under the preſidence of the governor it has ſix aſſeſſors, of whom two are from the ſtatute-court (of nobles), two from the government-magiſtracy (of the burgher claſs), and two from the court of †wards, if there be one. — It receives no orders but from the ſovereign and the ſenate.

5. The STATUTE-LAW COURT, is, as it were, the middle court between the inferior boards of

* His authority however does not extend over ſuch ſchools as are chartered, or committed to a particular direction by the imperial command.

† There the aſſeſſors are taken from the yeomanry or countryfolk, or at leaſt act in their ſtead.

all the circles, and the court of judicature *. It is compoſed of two preſidents and ten aſſeſſors, all taken from the nobility. Hither come the appeals from the circle-courts, the office of noble-wardſhips, and the inferior courts of ſtatute-law. It tries both criminal and civil cauſes in the firſt inſtance: ſending the former direct to the court of juſtice, the latter coming before it only by appeal.

6. The COURT OF CONSCIENCE, or the court of equity, is a board which is not found in other countries. It takes care that perſons committed to priſon ſhall not remain there without being brought to trial; ſtrives to bring diſputants, if they requeſt it, to agree by accommodation; determines all cauſes relating to minors, lunatics, idiots, &c. — It is independent on all the tribunals of the government. Here are one preſident, two aſſeſſors from the nobility for cauſes between nobles, two of the burgher claſs for controverſies between people of that ſtation, and two from the ſtatute-law court, or from the countryfolk, for

* Some cauſes, for inſtance thoſe relating to privileges and teſtamentary matters, alſo in actions of treſpaſs concerning noblemen, are commenced here as in the firſt inſtance; but in regard to circle-courts and noble wardſhips, it is the ſecond; and in relation to judgments decreed in the inferior ſtatute-law courts, even the third inſtance.

diſputes

diſputes among them. Theſe aſſeſſors are choſen every three years from their equals*.

7. The MAGISTRACY OF THE GOVERNMENT, is the ſuperior court of the magiſtrates of all the towns in the government. It conſiſts of two preſidents and ſix aſſeſſors. The latter are elected by ballot from the merchants and burghers of the government-town every three years.

8. The SUPERIOR COURT OF WARDS, is the higher court for all the inferior courts of that deſcription belonging to the government in criminal and civil cauſes of the odnodvortzi and the various boors belonging to the crown and to the empire. It has two preſidents and ten aſſeſſors; the latter being elected from the people belonging to the juriſdiction of this board, or from other claſſes.

* Concerning elections it is in general to be remarked: 1. that they are performed by the whole body of burghers in each town; whereas, 2. the nobility always aſſemble for this purpoſe in the government-town, becauſe they elect not only the judges for their circle, but alſo many of the members for the ſuperior-courts; in the latter all the nobles of the whole vicetoyalty take part. 3. All elections (only not univerſally among the countryfolk) are done by ballot in preſence of an inſpector. 4. The number of affirmative-ſuffrages are entered in a book; if afterwards a member goes off by death, &c. whoever had the next greater number of votes takes his place. 5. The electors may either agree upon certain perſons to be propoſed to their choice, or ballot for each perſon capable of being elected: the latter method takes up a deal of time.

Where the extent of the government requires it, there may be more than one ſuperior ſtatute-law court, government-magiſtracy, and ſuperior court of wards. Each of theſe three ſuperior courts has, like the court of judicature, two departments, one for penal, the other for civil cauſes *, each has alſo its own procureur and two ſolicitors, one attending to the ſuits of the crown, and the other to penal cauſes.

Beſides theſe courts various individuals are appointed, namely, 1. The government-procureur, whoſe duty it is to be watchful over the obſervance of the ordinances, to indict the negligent, to viſit the priſons, &c. 2. Two government-ſolicitors, one for matters belonging to the crown, the other for penal cauſes. They are appointed as aſſiſtants to the government-procureur. 3. The government-marſhal, is in a manner the head of the nobility, and is elected every three years by his peers, who may aſſociate with him circle-deputies. He ſerves without pay; in ſubordination to him on certain occaſions are the circle-marſhals. 4. The government-land-ſurveyor, &c.

In every circle are ſometimes three, ſometimes four boards of judicature, with their neceſſary chancery-offices, namely:

1. A CIRCLE-COURT for penal and civil cauſes, conſiſting of the circle-judge and two aſſeſſors, all

* When one department has little buſineſs, and the other much; the former is obliged to aſſiſt the latter.

of

of the nobility. It ſometimes repreſents a ſuperior court, as appeals may be brought hither from the ſentence of the inferior ſtatute-law court.

2. A NOBLE ORPHAN-COURT or office of wardſhip, in which the circle-marſhal preſides, with the members of the circle-court as aſſeſſors.

3. An INFERIOR STATUTE-LAW COURT, which has very extenſive affairs to manage, eſpecially all matters of police in the open country; it alſo tries criminal cauſes, iſſues immiſſions, judgments, executions, &c. Here ſit the circle-governor or judge of the rules of court (who has great reſponſibility upon him); two or three aſſeſſors of the nobility; and two perſons from the countryfolk or yeomanry (in cauſes which relate to their place of abode).

4. The INFERIOR WARD-COURT for odnodvortzi, crown-boors, &c. where there are between ten thouſand and thirty thouſand of them *. In it are ſeated the judge of the court, with four aſſeſſors from the country-folk or yeomanry †, or in their ſtead from other claſſes.

The

* Sometimes therefore two or three circles together have one of theſe courts in common.

† In the ordinances, indeed, mention is made of eight of theſe aſſeſſors, but two of them belong to the inferior ſtatute-law court, and two to the court of conſcience. — This wiſe regulation of making judges from their pares may afford a ſuggeſtion at ſome future period to ſuch beneficial changes as England

The members of the first-named three courts (excepting only the chancery-officers) are always chosen from the nobility of their circle at stated periods of three years by ballot, and then confirmed by the governor — An appellant from these four instances to a higher must make a deposit of twenty-five rubles succumbence-money, unless he can prove himself a pauper; but he receives it back as soon as the superior judge has made any alteration in the decree of the courts below, which is the case even with the higher instances.

Also particular individuals are appointed for every circle: 1. The accomptant, who receives and keeps account of the taxes, and likewise pays the officers their salaries. As considerable sums of money lie in his hands, he is obliged to give good security. 2. The circle-solicitor, who has an eye to the advantage of the crown, and must take care that the judge as well as others do their duty. 3. The circle-physician, the surgeon, two assistant-surgeons, and two pupils in *surgery. 4. The circle-land surveyor.

The towns, likewise, in consequence of this in-

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experienced several centuries ago, when the commons began to feel their consequence; the yeomanry in Russia are already sensible that they are not so slighted as formerly.

* The pupils, who likewise receive a small pay, are brought up to be surgeons, of which there was formerly often a great want, in the country.

stitution

ſtitution of viceroyalties, as alſo by ſubſequent regulations, and by the new police, have aſſumed a quite different form. This will make the ſubject of the following ſection. — Two particulars, however, ſeem to demand ſome previous obſervation.

Each viceroyalty has its peculiar uniform, which perſons holding any civil office, eſpecially when in the diſcharge of their functions, are obliged to wear *: other perſons of condition too are allowed to uſe them, as they were generally recommended by Catharine II. in the view of giving a check to luxury in dreſs.

The puniſhments uſual in Ruſſia, with the alterations and modifications they have latterly undergone, require no farther notice here, as they are mentioned by moſt travellers, than juſt to obſerve, that inſtead of the violent and cruel methods formerly in practice, which withal produced no good, much gentler are adopted with far greater effect. Every ſpecies of torture †, as

* Out of the ſervice every one is at liberty to dreſs as he pleaſes. — To deſcribe the uniforms here would be ſuperfluous, as they do not enter into the plan of the work, and as they are to be found in captain Pleſchéyéf's ſurvey of the ruſſian empire, tranſlated by the reverend Mr. James Smirnove. 1792.

† Even the old cuſtomary way of extorting confeſſion from the lower claſs of people by the ſcourge is no longer allowed. The watchful judge never fails to expreſs his diſapprobation when a nobleman cauſes his vaſſals to be whipped for forcing out the truth. Some criminals may abuſe this gentleneſs; but the innocent live in ſecurity by it.

well as confiſcation of property, are entirely aboliſhed, and capital puniſhments are extremely rare. Impriſonment during the examination muſt never laſt long: therefore all the priſons have their inſpectors, penal cauſes their particular departments, and the criminal proceedings their accurately preſcribed form. If the latter be duly obſerved by the ſeveral judges, the guiltleſs have certainly never any cauſe to dread their being left to languiſh in a dungeon.

SECTION II.

Municipal Conſtitution.

THAT the government of the towns acquired an entirely new form under the late empreſs, has been occaſionally mentioned before, particularly that each viceroyalty has not only ſeveral circle-towns, but alſo a government-town or capital. This holds the place of a circle-town for the circumjacent diſtrict, and at the ſame time contains as ſuch the afore-named inferior courts. Yet theſe have nothing to do with it and its inhabitants, every town being ruled by its own magiſtracy.

Where

Where there is no commandant, there a ſort of mayor * is appointed to officiate in his ſtead, who preſides over the police, and has the military-commando of the circle † under his orders, but has no juridical function. Commonly the buildings and magazines belonging to the crown are conſigned to his care.

In purſuance of the inſtruction for the government of towns and the ſurveying of lands, every town, beſides its ſcite and ground, muſt poſſeſs a freehold territory for paſture extending two verſts round the town. Many of the old towns, as well as villages raiſed into towns, had ſuch already; to others it was allotted from the adjacent crown lands, or procured at the expence of the crown from private owners by purchaſe and indemnification.

For deciding law-ſuits between the burghers every town has its TOWN-HOUSE, or a magiſtrature conſiſting of two burgher-maſters and four counſellors. In ſmall boroughs they are only half as many; but in very large towns more ‡. At firſt

* Gorodnitſchey.

† Each government and circle-town is provided with a number of ſoldiers, not belonging to the army, but uſed merely for preſerving the peace in the neighbourhood, for guarding priſoners, &c.

‡ Riga and Reval afford an inſtance of this, where even the magiſtrate is paid out of the old town-revenues. The magiſtracy of Riga is divided into ſeveral departments; but theſe are only exceptions,

they

they were paid by the crown, but Catharine II. reſolved that the magiſtrates ſhould be ſalaried by the town and from the revenues which ſhe, when there were none, ſhould grant it. Therefore in many towns the profit ariſing from the public houſes is appointed to that purpoſe; to others certain mills, ferries, paſſages, &c. and even eſtates in land, when they were deſtitute of them before. From the magiſtrate there lies an appeal to the government magiſtrate, as was ſeen in the foregoing ſection. — The election of the magiſtrate and ſome other magiſterial perſons is done every three years, in ſmall towns by all the burghers, in larger only by certain claſſes as ſettled in the ſtatute; but always by ballot.

The captain of the town militia, or the foreman of the burghers, is alſo choſen every three years from that body, is in ſome ſort the principal perſon, but ſerves his office without pay, diſpatches a great deal of buſineſs, and is preſident of the town-orphan-court, to which two counſellors and the aldermen belong. From this orphan-court an appeal is had to the government-magiſtrate.

Larger towns, beſides their magiſtrate, who only takes cognizance of law affairs, have a COMMON COUNCIL and a council of ſix voices. The common council conſiſts of the captain of the town-militia, and the voters from all claſſes of the inhabitants, as we ſhall ſee more diſtinctly preſently. Each guild, each company, each nation of foreigners,

reigners, each of the ſeven diviſions of the ſaid burghers, &c. chuſe every third year a ſpeaker to be member of the common-council. His duty it is to provide for every thing that may tend to the welfare and benefit of the town, to preſerve peace, ſecurity, and good conduct among the burghers; to provide the procuring of the neceſſaries and conveniencies by good credit; to keep an attentive eye upon the augmentation of the town-revenue, &c. — The SIX-VOTE COUNCIL conſiſts of the foreman of the burghers, and ſix members, whereof one is ſent from each of the burgher-claſſes, taken from the common-council. Theſe have the care of the town-revenues, provide the neceſſary buildings and for the ſupport of the public edifices, as alſo for the obſervance of good order, (yet without being a court of police,) likewiſe for keeping peace and harmony in the guilds and companies. — Theſe two councils, who perform their functions without fee or reward, may lay their requeſts before the magiſtrate.

For the adjuſtment of petty diſputes, concerning debts, &c. the ORAL COURT is ordained, the members whereof are elected annually from the burghers and merchants. — But to the police-office, entirely new-modelled, the magiſtracy ſupplies in ſmall towns one, and in larger two counſellors. Among them are the following officers elected from the body of burghers and named in the police-regulations: 1. The preſident of the quarter,

quarter, who every morning muſt make his report to the police-office. Each diviſion contains from two hundred to ſeven hundred houſes. 2. The quarter-inſpector, who muſt give informations to the preſident of their quarter, or to the mayor; under their authority are the nightly-watchmen, chimney-ſweepers, &c. of the quarter; to each quarter belong from fifty to one hundred houſes. 3. The quarter-lieutenant is an aſſiſtant to the former. 4. The brokers of the diviſion and the work-people (which, however, do not exiſt in ſmall towns). — To all theſe officers no ſalary is allowed by the crown.

All burghers, and ſuch as have property or live in the town, (even perſons of quality who have their own houſe there,) are divided, by means of the burgher-book in which they are inſerted in alphabetical order, into ſix claſſes; which are,

1. Proprietary burghers, or inhabitants who poſſeſs an immoveable property in the town. Theſe are at liberty to ſet up work-ſhops, manufactories, &c. Their names appear again commonly in one of the following claſſes:

2. The three guilds, in which, without regard to family, deſcent, merchandiſe, trade, eccleſiaſtical connection, or the like, all thoſe are entered who declare themſelves to poſſeſs a certain capital: no judicial inveſtigation has any thing to do with theſe ſtatements; only every perſon pays on the capital he has ſtated himſelf to be worth,

and

and according to which credit and privileges are granted him, his annual tax on capital. — To the firſt guild belong all who poſſeſs a capital of ten thouſand to twenty thouſand rubles. Such an one may carry on all kinds of domeſtic and foreign commerce, be a ſhip-owner, drive about the town in his own coach with a pair of horſes, and is exempt from all corporal puniſhments. — To the ſecond belongs whoever gives in a capital of five thouſand to ten thouſand rubles. He may carry on all kinds of inland trade, keep veſſels for the tranſport of his goods on the river, drive in a calaſh with a pair of horſes, and is free from corporal puniſhment. — The members of theſe two firſt guilds may likewiſe ſet up manufactories, work mines, &c. — To the third belong all who declare themſelves to have a capital of one thouſand to five thouſand rubles. They may carry on a retail trade both in town and country, keep work-ſhops, barks on the rivers, inns, &c. but can only be drawn in ſummer and winter by one horſe, though not in coaches *. — He whoſe capital (in which it is underſtood his whole means) encreaſes or diminiſhes, alſo whoever is inclined to extend or to narrow his trade, is at liberty to take his name out

* This is apt to wound the pride of the merchants' wives in ſome of the Baltic towns; and becauſe it is not expreſsly declared whether the guild is exempt from corporal puniſhments, many a merchant rather chuſes to inſcribe himſelf at a higher capital, in order to bring himſelf into the ſecond guild.

of

of his preſent guild and inſcribe it in another. — He who returns himſelf at a capital of five hundred rubles, belongs, by an ukaſe of March 25, 1775, to the third guild: but this has been altered by the municipal regulation; nevertheleſs ſuch an one, by ukaſe of March 17, 1775, may inſcribe himſelf as merchant, and carry on ſome retail trade*: in many towns therefore ſuch merchants are ſtill reckoned to belong to the third guild.

3. The companies, or trades (maſters, journeymen, and apprentices). For them a particular trade-regulation is preſcribed†.

4. Foreigners and inmates from other towns and countries, who cauſe themſelves to be regiſtered on account of their buſineſſes. Where five hundred of them are in one town, they have liberty to chooſe from their own body as many perſons to the town-magiſtracy as there are already ruſſian members of the magiſtracy. They can ſet up trades and manufactories, and quit the town at their option.

5. Nominal burghers; to theſe belong thoſe who have been twice elected to a municipal office,

* There are even boors who take all kinds of petty commodities of the merchants, eſpecially pickles, preſerves, and grocery, and go ſelling them about the country.

† Formerly the german tradeſmen in Peterſburg and Moſco, as well as the ruſſian, had no bye-laws or rules of trade; every one became maſter as ſoon as he could.

and have ſince honourably diſcharged the poſt of a burgher-maſter or mayor; men of learned profeſſions and artiſts who can produce academical teſtimonials; bankers who inſcribe themſelves as having a capital of 100,000 to 400,000 rubles; wholeſale dealers who keep no ſhop; ſhip-owners. They may make uſe of a coach in town with two or four horſes *, have pleaſure-houſes and gardens out of town, poſſeſs fabrics, manufactories, galleots on the rivers and lakes.

6. Settlers, who gain a livelihood by trades, and are enregiſtered in no former part of the burgher-book. They may have workſhops, ſhops, and warehouſes †, keep inns and houſes of entertainment, &c. They can neither go about in coaches nor with two horſes. What might be here introduced concerning the eligibility to offices in perſons of the ſeveral claſſes here ſpecified would lead us into particulars too diffuſe for our purpoſe. — One farther remark ſeems neceſſary, that noblemen whoſe names are en-

* This privilege is worthy of notice, becauſe a nobleman, who has never ſerved, conſequently has acquired no rank, can only be drawn in town by one horſe, as is expreſsly laid down in the equipage-ordinance of April 3, 1775.

† Even vaſſals belonging to the crown or to noblemen, regiſtered in the villages where they pay their obrok and poll-tax, may dwell in the town as ſettlers, and there keep ſhop, or follow a trade, &c. Formerly in the Baltic towns boors were entirely ſhut out from all ſuch means of gaining a decent livelihood.

tered

tered in the burgher-book may carry on any civil occupation of profit in the town conſiſtent with their ſtation.

By the police-regulation every houſe and other building muſt be numbered. — In ſome few places the magiſtrates provide, eſpecially in large towns, that the ſtreets be lighted at night, and that the houſes be ſecured from fire. — In the new circle-towns the court-houſes built at the crown's expence, are all of brick. But the town-houſe muſt be conſtructed and maintained at the charge of the town.

Thus, the towns of Ruſſia, which formerly (with the exception of very few,) were entirely deſtitute of a regular government, have now obtained a conſtitution on as equitable a plan as the nature of circumſtances will perhaps allow. From the ſhort account we have been able to give, it is ſufficiently ſeen how earneſtly the late empreſs endeavoured to bring the towns into credit and repute, and to induce natives as well as foreigners to ſettle in them. To expatiate any farther on the various ukaſes and regulations ſhe publiſhed in this view, would require more of our pages than we can ſpare.

Though the number of governments and towns have of late years been greatly increaſed, yet it is not to be imagined that they now lie near together, at leaſt that no circle-town is at any great diſtance from the capital of its government. This can only

only be affirmed of ſome diſtricts, but not by far of all: thus Turukanſk in the government of Tobolſk is ſtill 3305 verſts diſtant from its government-town: and Petropavlovſk in the government of Irkutſk, even 4620 verſts.

One excellent regulation is, that magazines, with ſtore of proviſions, which in ſeaſons of ſcarcity are opened, are conſtructed by the crown in numbers of the circle-towns. Alſo the burghers and country people are much benefited by the inſtitution of annual fairs and weekly markets in all the towns. Nor ought it to be paſſed over without a tribute of praiſe, that at preſent whoever chooſes to become a burgher is at liberty to do ſo without regard to any diſtinctions ariſing from birth or religious perſuaſion, all queſtions concerning thoſe particulars being ſtrictly forbidden *.

Some few alterations were made in the political geography of the empire under the preſent emperor Paul Petrovitch, in December 1796, and during the courſe of the year 1797, in order to ſimplify the adminiſtration. The nameſniſcheſtva, ſtatthalterſchafts, or viceroyalties, are now all called governments, guberniya, and each government

* Hupel, verſuch die ſtaatſverfaſſung des ruſſiſchen reichs darzuſtellen, tom. i. p. 173 & ſqq. 495.

has both a civil and a military governor, graſch-danſki i voennoy gubernator, and ſome other courts are introduced into the governments and the circle-towns, by which the expences of the adminiſtration and the governor and his retinue are conſiderably leſſened. The governments of Vyborg, Reval, Riga, and thoſe of Little-Ruſſia are reſtored, more or leſs, to their old form of government as it was before the erection of the viceroyalties, and ſome of them have likewiſe recovered their former names.

The abolition of ſome of the viceroyalties has followed in conſequence of their being joined to others, or divided into ſeveral circles and incorporated with them; and in like manner the number of the circles in ſeveral governments is much diminiſhed by their conjunction with others. When theſe circles, ujeſdi, coincide with a newly raiſed circle-town, then the towns, boroughs, ſlobodes, church-villages either return to their former ſtate, or become ſubordinate to the circle-town, retaining their municipal privileges and trade.

In making theſe changes, all of trifling conſequence, the government-conſtitution of 1775 was continued as the baſis.

VIEW

OF THE

RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

BOOK X.

SOCIAL STATE OF THE INHABITANTS.

Productive Induſtry.

THE ſocial activity of the inhabitants of the ruſſian empire, preſents a very entertaining ſubject to our obſervation. The prodigious expanſe of the country, and the diverſity of its climate and products, occaſion ſuch a variety in the way of life and the means of ſupport among the people, that we can diſcover in their occupations and purſuits every gradation of rude and refined induſtry. According as the wants and the civilization of the tribes are modified, they either remain content with ſuch parſimonious exertions as juſt

ſuffice to the ſimple ſupply of the moſt urgent wants of nature, or they unfold their powers to an elevated and dignified activity, which procures them new artificial wants, in order to multiply the objects and the ſpecies of enjoyment. Again we find in Ruſſia not only particular ranks and races devoting themſelves excluſively to this or the other branch of induſtry, but whole nations principally or ſolely gaining their livelihood either by the chace, or the breeding of cattle, or the fiſhery, or laſtly by the arts of agriculture. This ſingular country, in which the occupations of mankind are compounded into their civil and moral conſtitution, is a phænomenon the more intereſting, as every veſtige of this original ſtate of all nations is in moſt countries effaced by civilization.

The ſeveral modifications of ſocial induſtry are reducible to three leading branches, one having for its object the obtaining, the ſecond the improvement, and the third the barter, of natural products. Among the employments of procuring or obtaining induſtry are the chace, the fiſhery, the grazier's buſineſs; agriculture, the culture of gardens, vineyards, and foreſts, the management of bees, the care of the ſilk-worm; the working of mines, and the tending of ſalt-works. We will take this natural diviſion for our guide in repreſenting the ſocial activity of the inhabitants of the ruſſian empire, and endeavour briefly to delineate each of theſe objects according to the

order we have, not altogether arbitrarily, juſt enumerated *.

SECTION I.

The Chace.

HUNTING was everywhere the firſt occupation of man. Impelled by hunger, and incited to reſiſtance by the attacks of ſavage animals, his firſt

* The two authors who have treated ſyſtematically the ſtatiſtics of the ruſſian empire, Hermann and Hupel, are all along conſulted in this and ſeveral of the following ſections; but as the plan of thoſe performances differs eſſentially from that here purſued, our materials are chiefly drawn from the very ſources; that is, ſelected from travels and topographies, the authorities for which we think ourſelves the more bound to produce, as many of the accounts which will appear in this diviſion of our work will ſtand in need of ſubſtantial vouchers for laying claim to the conviction or belief of the reader. Beſides, as it is not the intention here to confine ourſelves to the political and œconomical, but to give the ſocial and moral delineation of the ruſſian empire and its inhabitants, it has been thought neceſſary to admit into the plan not only the objects and the amount of their induſtry, but alſo their modifications, and the manner in which the people are employed in them, becauſe by this means we ſhall have opportunity for introducing ſeveral facts as we proceed, which will offer themſelves to us as moral characteriſtics. See Storch's hiſtoriſch-ſtatiſtiſches gemælde des ruſſiſchen reichs, &c. tom. ii. p. 565.

buſineſs was to ſtruggle with them for the ſupport of his life. In moſt of the countries in our part of the globe the chace has loſt this character: it is now, neither from want nor fear, a buſineſs of neceſſity; and even the employment, which in the earlier ſtages of the european nations was a toilſome and dangerous purſuit, is become an object of diverſion and pleaſure. But in Ruſſia are ſtill numerous tribes, who, in regard to their phyſical wants, are entirely or principally addicted to the chace, and are obliged to contend for their exiſtence with the ſavage inhabitants of their deſerts. Conſidered in this point of view, the chace is already a buſineſs of very great conſequence to the ruſſian empire: but if we look to the quantity and the value of the products that are obtained by this purſuit, not only to the home conſumption, but likewiſe to its commerce with foreign nations, it acquires one political importance more, which impoſes on us the neceſſity of becoming ſomewhat more accurately acquainted with the manner in which it is conducted, and the objects to which it extends.

Hitherto the chace in the whole circuit of the empire has been generally free: on eſtates, indeed, it is a right belonging to the owner; but almoſt every freeholder allows his boors to hunt, and in many diſtricts even encourages them to exterminate the noxious animals. Even in Livonia, where the proprietors of eſtates are Germans, and where the

the game begins to grow ſcarce, it is never taken amiſs when a ſportſman with his friends, attendants, and hounds, traverſes domains without firſt obtaining permiſſion of the owner. Some few landlords forbid their boors to carry a gun; but this prohibition only produces a quite contrary effect, and the miſchief clandeſtinely done is ſo much the greater *. In Siberia the chace is confined to ſuch beaſts as have valuable ſkins, and in purſuance of ſupreme command to thoſe nations who deliver their tribute in furs, and make hunting their chief employment; but here alſo the ruſſian boor never fails to devote to the chace the idle days of winter. He either follows this trade as a poacher, or procures a ticket of licence from the magiſtrate, or from the heads of the ſiberian ſtems, by which he may hunt in ſafety for the ſeaſon. In the former caſe he not unfrequently runs the hazard of being caught by the injured proprietor of the game, and chaſtiſed on the ſpot, or given up to the magiſtrate †. — No game-laws have ever as yet been enacted, though the increaſing ſcarcity of ſeveral of the choiceſt animals ſeems daily to call for ſome prudent reſtrictions, to prevent the failure of ſo abundant a ſource of national riches.

* Hupel's topographiſche nachrichten von Liefland und Eſthland, tom. ii. p. 430.

† Pallas, travels through various provinces of the ruſſian empire, tom. iii. p. 10.

The wild animals which are purſued for the ſake of their ſkins are found in the greateſt plenty in the moſt northern and eaſtern parts of Ruſſia, principally on the iſlands between Kamtſhatka and America, the diſcovery whereof is become of vaſt importance to the fur-trade. Next to theſe the governments of Tobolſk, Perme, Ufa, Viatka, Archangel, Olonetz, Vologda, and ſome others, are moſt abundant in beaſts of the chace.

But preciſely where the chace is the moſt lucrative there it is a very difficult, toilſome, and perilous buſineſs; accordingly it is made a principal employment only by the moſt uncultivated nations, as, the Oſtiaks, Samoyedes, Vogules, Tunguſes, Tſchuktſches, Kamtſhadales, Yakutes, the eaſtern-iſlanders, and the majority of the ſiberian Tartars. With ſeveral of theſe nations the chace is the ſole means of profit by which they are enabled to procure food, clothes, and other neceſſaries; and theſe pay their taxes to government, or their tribute, in furs. In defiance of all the hardſhips attending the chace of large beaſts of prey in the monſtrous foreſts and wilderneſſes of the arctic region, this trade is not only the principal but alſo the favourite employment of moſt of its inhabitants. It is by no means unuſual for ſingle hunters of theſe ſavage tribes to engage in duels with bears, wolves, and other ferocious animals, in which they are ſo ſure of their artifice or their aim, that they ſeldom or never fall in the combat.

Some

Some nations, as the Oſtiaks of the Oby, never go to the chace but in ſmall companies, when they beat about the foreſts for four or ſix weeks together in queſt of prey, taking with them no other proviſions than frozen fiſh in little hand-ſledges. Whereas the Tunguſes and others roam ſingly about their wilds which are covered with mountains, fragments of rocks, and large rivers, and where they often fall a ſacrifice to their fondneſs for this ſport. When one of theſe hunters has the misfortune to break an arm or a leg, or to be wedged between two pieces of rock, in this helpleſs ſituation he muſt either periſh with hunger or die of his wounds, or fall a prey to ſome ſavage beaſt.

The OBJECTS OF THE CHACE are ſo many and various, that a complete enumeration of them would be difficult and unentertaining. Without therefore confining ourſelves to a ſyſtematical detail, which might prove tedious and dry to moſt of our readers, we will only dwell upon the principal ſpecies of animals which are procured by the chace from the great ſtores of nature, for the purpoſes of conſumption and trade; on this occaſion never loſing ſight of the nobleſt object of our obſervation, man. The various modifications of his activity and induſtry will afford beautiful and rich materials for the philoſophic mind; and where theſe may occaſionally preſerve too great an uniformity, diſperſed obſervations on the nature

nature and manners of the brutes will give a greater variety to the whole.

The CHACE FOR THE SAKE OF FURS being the moſt important to foreign commerce, we ſhall make it the firſt object of our notice. The moſt valuable of all the animals that are ſought for their ſkin is the SABLE; to which, by the general conſent of all the nations of Europe and Aſia, ſo great and determinate a price has been affixed, that its ſkin ſtill ſerves as a ſtandard to the tribute which is paid to the crown by the ſiberian nations of hunters *. This animal is found in aſiatic Ruſſia, from the aleutan iſlands and from Kamtſhatka to the diſtricts of the Petſchora and of the Kama: but the quality of his ſkin in this extenſive region is extremely different. The fineſt ſables come from Yakutſk and Nertſchinſk, and among theſe are likewiſe, though rarely, yellow, and extremely ſeldom, white ſables. The kamtſhadale ſables are the largeſt of all. Their ſkin is thick and long-haired, but not very black, therefore moſt of them go to China, where they are coloured. At the time of the conqueſt of Kamtſhatka, the ſables were there in ſuch extraordinary numbers, that a

* The tribute in furs, which is called *yaſſak*, is ſtill determined by ſables, though commonly it is only nominal, the tribute moſtly being delivered in other furs, or wholly paid in money, the ſable being reckoned at a ruble. Pallas, travels, tom. iii. p. 12.

ſingle

ſingle hunter could eaſily bring away ſixty, eighty, and more of theſe animals in a winter, and they were held in ſuch little eſtimation by the Kamtſhadales, that they deemed the more uſeful ſkin of a dog to be of twice the value. For ten rubles worth of iron-ware there was no difficulty in obtaining the value of five or ſix hundred rubles in ſables; and whoever had only followed this trade to Kamtſhatka for the ſpace of a year, uſually came back with a profit of thirty thouſand rubles and upwards. This ſuperfluity, however, ſince the firſt kamtſhadale expedition, or ſince the year 1740, has conſiderably diminiſhed: but notwithſtanding this, that peninſula and the circumjacent territory continues to be the richeſt in ſables, as, on account of the mountains, they cannot be ſo eaſily caught, and are prevented by the bordering ſea from retiring to other tracts.

The manner in which the ſables of Kamtſhatka are taken is extremely ſimple. The Kamtſhadales follow the track of this animal in ſnow-ſhoes, till they have detected his covert, which is generally a burrow in the earth. As ſoon as the little creature is aware of his purſuer, he eſcapes into a hollow tree, which the hunter ſurrounds with a net, and then either cuts it entirely down, or forces the ſable by fire and ſmoke to abandon his retreat, when he falls into the net and is killed *. — In

* Steller's beſchreibung von Kamtſchatka, p. 119.

other

other parts, where theſe animals are rare, the contrivances to take them are more artificial. Of this kind is the ſable-trap of the Vogules, which is uſed in ſeveral parts of Siberia. A place is ſought out where two young trees ſtand not far aſunder, which are immediately ſtripped of their branches about the bottom. At one of theſe trees a poſt is ſtuck in the ground, and on it is placed a beam horizontally, faſtened in ſuch manner to both trees that one end of it lies between the poſt and the tree. Over this beam another is laid, as a trap-fall, at the end whereof a thin ſupport is put, which, when the trap-fall is up, ſtands over the notched end of the poſt; at the extremity of the ſupport is a mat-ſtring, and another at the lower tranſverſe beam tied very ſhort. Both are brought together, and a bit of ſtick put through them, having at its longer extremity a piece of fleſh or wild fowl attached, which by its preponderance keeps the ſtick down and thus holds the two ſtrings together. The ſable creeps cautiouſly along the lower beam till he can reach the bait and pull it to him: this lets go the ſtick to which the bait is tied and by which the ſtrings were held together; the ſtay loſes its hold, and conſequently the upper beam falls upon the ſhoulders of the animal and holds him faſt. — With the ſame kind of trap martens and other little beaſts are killed*.

* Pallas, travels, tom. ii. p. 227.

As

As the ſable for a long time paſt is become gradually more ſcarce, the crown alſo accepts of the ſkins of foxes, martens, ſquirrels, and fiſh-otters, from the inhabitants of Siberia, inſtead of the ſable. The price of the ſable fur is generally various; there are ſkins which on the ſpot in Siberia fetch fifty rubles and more. The greateſt admirers of this beautiful and delicate fur are the Chineſe, the Perſians, and the Turks: it is affirmed that more ſable-ſkins are nowhere uſed than at Conſtantinople.

The FOX makes alſo a conſiderable article of trade, of which in Ruſſia there are four diſtinct ſpecies: the common, among which are the red, the ſorrel, the black-ſtriped, (called the croſs-fox,) and the entirely white, which are the rareſt and deareſt; the karagane, of a grey colour, the ſteppe-fox, and the rock or ice-fox. The latter, which are moſtly white, but ſometimes of a blueiſh colour, chiefly inhabit the iſlands on the coaſts of the Frozen-ocean, Kamtſhatka, and the ruſſian Archipelago. The black foxes, which at preſent fetch moſt money in commerce, are only found in eaſtern Siberia.

The ordinary method of catching theſe animals is by traps ſet for them; but the inhabitants of Kamtſhatka moſt commonly make uſe of an ingenious invention for that purpoſe. They lay ſeveral ſnares of whalebone, which are faſtened like hoops to a board, within a circle in the ſnow;

placing

placing in the middle of this circle a mew or ſea-gull as a bait. As ſoon as the fox jumps into the circle to ſeize his prey, the hunter, who lurks in a pit, draws the hoop together by means of a ſtring, which catches the fox either by the body or the foot, and holds him till the hunter knocks him down with a ſtick. In Siberia it is very uſual to make the fox ſhoot himſelf dead, by faſtening a gently drawn bow with its arrow upon it to a poſt fixed in the ground: acroſs the path or track a line is laid, in ſuch a manner connected with the bow, that it is immediately diſcharged as the fox touches the ſtring in running. The arrow generally pierces the heart of the animal, and conſequently kills it on the ſpot: to this end the hunter has a rule to determine the height at which the bow muſt be placed *.

Eaſtern Siberia, and particularly Kamtſhatka, abound moſt in beautiful foxes: they were here in ſuch great numbers about the middle of the eighteenth century, that the fineſt fire-red fox ſkins were never ſold higher on the ſpot than at one hundred and thirty to one hundred and eighty kopeeks. The black foxes are in general not ſo very plenty; their value in commerce is ſuch, that ſometimes even a ſingle ſkin cannot be had for leſs than one hundred or five hundred, and at

* Ruſſia: or a complete hiſtorical account of all the nations which compoſe that empire, vol. i. p. 181.

times

times even for a thouſand rubles. Theſe animals are naturally the choiceſt object of the chace among all the eaſtern ſiberian nations, as one ſkin not unfrequently defrays the tribute of a whole village. The care, therefore, with which they keep the young foxes they take is ſo great that the oſtiak women nouriſh them at their breaſts. In ſummer when they find young foxes of this ſort, they at firſt feed them, but ſhortly before they kill them they break one of their legs that they may eat leſs, as lean foxes have better *ſkins. — The true native country of the rock or ice-fox are the iſlands of the Frozen-ocean and the Eaſtern-ocean, where they are found in incredible numbers. The deſcription which Steller gives of this curious and ſly animal is ſo entertaining, that it may be read with pleaſure even more than once. "During my unfortunate abode," ſays he, "on "Behring's Iſland, I had opportunities more than "enough for ſtudying the nature of this animal, "far excelling the common fox in impudence, "cunning, and roguery. The narrative of the "innumerable tricks they played us might eaſily "vie with Albertus Julius's hiſtory of the apes "on the iſland of Saxenburg. They forced "themſelves into our habitations by night as "well as day, ſtealing all that they could carry

* Ruſſia: or a complete hiſtorical account of all the nations which compoſe that empire, vol. i. p. 181.

"off;

" off; even things that were of no uſe to them,
" as, knives, ſticks, our cloaths, &c. They were
" ſo inconceivably ingenious as to roll down our
" caſks of proviſions ſeveral poods in weight, and
" then ſteal the meat out of them ſo ably, that at
" firſt we could not bring ourſelves to aſcribe the
" theft to them. As we were ſtripping an animal
" of his ſkin, it often happened that we could not
" avoid ſtabbing two or three foxes, from their
" rapacity in tearing the fleſh out of our hands.
" If we buried it ever ſo carefully, and added
" ſtones to the weight of earth that was upon
" it; they not only found it out, but ſhoved
" away the ſtones, as men would have done, with
" their ſhoulders, and lying under them helped
" one another with all their might. If, thinking
" to ſecure it, we put any on the top of a high
" poſt in the air, they grubbed up the earth at
" the bottom, ſo that the poſt and all came
" tumbling down, or one of them clambered up
" and threw down what was upon it with incre-
" dible artifice and dexterity. They watched all
" our motions, and accompanied us in whatever
" we were about to do. If the ſea threw up an
" animal of any kind they devoured it, ere a man
" of us could come up; to our great diſadvan-
" tage: and, if they could not conſume it all at
" once, they trailed it away in portions to the
" mountains, where they buried it under ſtones
" before our eyes; running to and fro as long as
" any

" any thing remained to be conveyed away.
" While this was doing, others ſtood upon guard
" and watched us. If they ſaw any one coming
" at a diſtance, the whole troop combined at once
" and began digging all together in the ſand, till
" they had ſo fairly put a beaver or a ſea-bear
" under the ſurface, that not a trace of it was to
" be ſeen. In the night-time, when we ſlept in
" the field, they came and pulled off our night-
" caps and ſtole our gloves from under our heads,
" with the beaver coverings and the ſkins that we
" lay upon. In conſequence of this we always
" ſlept with clubs in our hands, that if they
" ſhould wake us we might drive them away or
" knock them down.

" When we made a halt to reſt by the way,
" they gathered around us and played a thouſand
" tricks in our view, and when we ſat ſtill, they
" approached us ſo near that they gnawed the
" thongs of our ſhoes. If we laid down, as if
" intending to ſleep, they came and ſmelled at
" our noſes to try whether we were dead or alive;
" if we held our breath, they gave ſuch a tug to
" the noſe as if they would bite it off. On our
" firſt arrival they bit off the noſes, the fingers,
" and toes of our dead, while we were preparing
" the grave, and thronged in ſuch manner about
" the infirm and the ſick, that it was with diffi-
" culty we could keep them off. Every morning
" we ſaw theſe audacious animals patrolling about

" among the ſea-lions and ſea-bears lying on the " ſtrand, ſmelling at ſuch as were aſleep, to diſ- " cover whether ſome of them might not be dead; " if that happened to be the caſe, they proceeded " to diſſect him immediately, and preſently after " all were at work in dragging the parts away: " becauſe the ſea-lions of a night in their ſleep " frequently overlay their young, they examine, " as if conſcious of this circumſtance, every " morning the whole herd of them, one by one, " and immediately drag away the dead cubs from " their dams.

" Seeing now that they would not ſuffer us to " be at reſt night nor day, we were in fact ſo ex- " aſperated at them that we killed them young " and old, and plagued them by every means we " could deviſe. When we awoke in the morn- " ing, there always lay two or three at our feet " that had been knocked on the head in the " night; and I can ſafely affirm, that during my " ſtay upon the iſland above two hundred of theſe " animals were ſlain by myſelf alone. The third " day after my arrival I knocked down, within " the ſpace of three hours, upwards of ſeventy of " them with a club, and made a covering to my " hut of their ſkins. They are ſo ravenous, that " with one hand we could hold to them a piece of " fleſh, and graſp a ſtick or an ax in the other to " knock them on the head.

" When theſe buſy animals could not get hold

" on what they wanted, for example, the cloaths " we occaſionally put off, they voided their ex- " crements upon it, and then ſcarcely one of " the reſt paſſed by without doing the ſame. " From all circumſtances it was clear to us that " they could never before have ſeen a human " being, and that the dread of man is not innate " in the brutes, but muſt be grounded on long " experience.

" In October and November they, like the " foxes, were the moſt ſleek and full of hair. In " January and February the growth of it is too " thick; in April and May they begin to ſhed " their coat; in June and July they had only the " wool upon them, and looked as if they went in " waiſtcoats. In June they drop their cubs, nine " or ten at a brood, in holes and clefts of the " rocks. They are ſo fond of their young, that " to ſcare us away from them they barked and " yelled like dogs, and thereby betrayed their co- " vert*. No ſooner do they perceive that their " retreat is diſcovered, than, unleſs they be diſ- " turbed, they drag away the young in their " mouths, and try to conceal them in a more ſe- " cret place. On killing the young, the dam " follows the ſlayer with grievous howlings, day " and night for a hundred and more verſts, and

* Hence probably comes the ruſſian appellation of the ice or rock-foxes: *pelizi*, from *peletz*, a puppy.

" never ceaſes till ſhe has played her enemy ſome
" trick, or is killed by him herſelf.

" They ſtink much more horridly than even
" the red fox. In rutting-time they run toge-
" ther day and night, biting each other from jea-
" louſy like dogs. When they couple they make
" juſt ſuch a ſcreaming as cats do. In ſtorms
" and heavy falls of ſnow they bury themſelves
" in the ſnow, and lie ſtill as long as it laſts.
" They ſwim acroſs rivers with great agility.
" Beſides what the ſea caſts up or is deſtroyed by
" beaſts, they ſeize the ſea-fowl by night on the
" cliffs where they have ſettled to rooſt; but they
" themſelves are frequently victims to the birds
" of prey. — Theſe animals, which are now in
" ſuch inexpreſſible numbers on the iſland, pro-
" bably were conveyed thither, ſince there is no
" other land-animal upon it, from the continent
" on the drift-ice; and, afterwards nouriſhed by
" the great quantity of animal ſubſtances thrown
" a-ſhore by the ſea, multiplied to ſuch an extra-
" ordinary degree *."

To return from this digreſſion, if ſuch it may be called, which is ſo cloſely connected with our ſubject. This ſpecies is either entirely white or of a blueiſh colour, and their furs compoſe a conſiderable article of commerce. Though the voyages

* Steller's beſchreibung der Beringſinſel, in Pallas neuen nordiſchen beytrægen, tom. ii. p. 274—279.

of

of the ruſſian inhabitants of the coaſts to Spitſbergen and Novaya-Zemlia be moſtly for the purpoſe of catching the morſe* and the robbe; yet, as they can only follow this buſineſs while the ſea is open, they uſually employ the reſt of the time, when they winter on theſe iſlands, in the chace, which here only extends to the white or polar bear, the ice-fox, rein-deer, and eider-fowl. The Samoyedes, likewiſe, enter into ſmall parties, who proceed together in winter acroſs the ice of Vaygat's ſtraights to the iſland, uninhabitable even to Samoyedes, of Novaya-Zemlia, where they principally hunt for bears and foxes. That they may not loſe their way in the fields of ſnow extending farther and wider than the eye can reach, through which they wander, they draw figures in the ſnow, of which every family has its own in uſe, that they may trace out each other and meet again. Their weapons are the bow and arrow, ſpears, ſnares, and traps; they alſo make uſe of a ſmall thick greyhound †. — The voyages to the ruſſian Archipelago in the Eaſtern-ocean are indeed undertaken ſolely on account of the furs; but as here too the ice-fox is not the main object, we will poſtpone the deſcription of that chace and branch of commerce to a fitter opportunity.

* Trichecus roſmarus: called wallroſs by the Germans.

† Georgi, p. 279.

For ſmaller furrieries and edgings, the ſkins of the MARTEN, the SQUIRREL, the ERMINE, the RABBIT and the MARMOTTE are the choiceſt. All theſe little animals are courſed with dogs by the boors, who devote a part of their time to the chace, or caught in great numbers with traps and gins ſet before their burrows. — The marten is not only found in Siberia but in european Ruſſia, even about the Ladoga-lake and in Livonia; but thoſe in the government of Tobolſk are the fineſt as well as the moſt plentiful. — The blackeſt ſquirrels come from Yakutſk and Nertſchinſk; but they are likewiſe the ſmalleſt. The teleutan are famous for their ſize, and have alſo the beautiful ſilver-colour that renders them ſo valuable. The ſtriped ſquirrel* is likewiſe very plenty in Siberia. This delicate little creature climbs the trees and nimbly ſprings from bough to bough, but his winter-holes and the magazines of proviſions always found with them, in which various kinds of ſeeds are collected, he makes in the earth, though on account of the moiſture of the ground not remarkably deep. Eaſy as it would be to catch theſe animals, and numerous as the fanciers which their beautiful ſtriped fur would enſure, yet none apply to the capture of them. — In Ruſſia are ſeveral more little animals which deſerve notice in regard to their ſkin, the chace whereof has

* Which the Ruſſians call *burunduk*.

been

been hitherto entirely neglected. Among these, besides the striped squirrel, may be reckoned the gold-coloured weazel in which Siberia abounds; the suslik, the pereveska, and the spalax, which are seen in great numbers between the Don and the Dniepr; as is that very common and great foe to gardens, the mole, in the whole of north Russia. The striped or spotted skin of the squirrel, the suslik *, and the pereveska suit the taste of the southern Europeans; the gold-coloured hair of the weazel is admired in Persia, and the skin of the spalax and mole might serve for ordinary furs †. — Hare-skins and cat-skins, however it may appear, form a considerable article of commerce, being worked up in Russia into hats, or exported for that purpose. In the year 1793, of the two kinds, 2113 sacks and 607,000 skins were shipped off, which in value amounted to 298,000 rubles. It would certainly have been better to have wrought this large quantity of raw materials in the country, as Russia imports annually a considerable number of hats.

To the other objects of the chace for furs must be added the BEAR, the WOLF, the LYNX, the

* Mus citellus.

† Guldenstædt's akademische rede ueber die produkte Russlands, welche zur unterhaltung, &c. im St. Petersburg journal, tom. iv. p. 25.

GLUTTON, the FERRET, the POLECAT, &c. which generally ſpeaking are ſpread over the whole of north Ruſſia, and the prodigious quantities obtained of their ſkins are partly conſumed at home and partly ſent abroad. The bear is in many reſpects ſo uſeful an animal, and the manner of taking him in Ruſſia ſo various and ſo ingenious, that our pains will be amply repaid in enlarging upon them.

The moſt uſual way of killing the bear is with fire-arms and ſpears or darts. The Laplanders knock them down with clubs, as they can eaſily overtake them in running with their ſnow-ſhoes; but they are generally firſt ſhot and then diſpatched with ſpears. In ſome parts of Siberia the hunters erect a ſcaffold of ſeveral balks laid on each other, which fall down all together and cruſh the bear, on his ſtepping on the trap placed under it. Another method is, to dig pits, in which a ſmooth, ſolid, and very ſharp-pointed poſt is fixed into the ground, riſing about a foot above the bottom. The pit is carefully covered over with ſods; and acroſs the track of the bear a thin rope with an elaſtic bug-bear is placed. As ſoon as the bear touches the rope, the wooden bug-bear ſtarts looſe, and the ſcared animal, endeavouring to ſave himſelf by flight, falls violently into the pit, and is killed by the pointed poſt. If he eſcape this ſnare, at a ſmall diſtance, perhaps, ſeveral

ſeveral caltrops* and other inſtruments of annoyance await him, amongſt which a ſimilar terrific log is erected, and where the perſecuted beaſt, the more he ſtrives to get free, fixes himſelf faſter to the ſpot at which the blood-thirſty hunter lies in ambuſh for him. Yet not only beneath and upon the earth, but even in the air has man's inventive genius contrived to lay ſnares for his liberty and his life. The Koriaks to this end look out for a crooked tree: grown into the form of a gibbet, at the bowed ſummit of which they attach a nooſe, hanging with it a bait. The hungry bear is ſo tempted by this object, that he eagerly climbs up the tree, and is infallibly the victim of his greedineſs; for, on his moving the branch, the nooſe draws together, and the bear remains ſuſpended to the tree, which violently ſprings back into its former direction. But more ſingular and ingenious is the method adopted by the inhabitants of the mountainous parts of Siberia to make this ferocious animal kill himſelf. They faſten a very heavy block to a rope, terminating at the other end with a loop. This is laid near a ſteep precipice in the path which the bear is wont to take. On having his neck in the nooſe, and

* Irons with four ſpikes, ſo made, that which ever way they fall, one point always lies upwards, generally thrown in breaches or on bridges, to annoy an enemy's horſe; alſo an inſtrument with three iron ſpikes uſed in hunting the wolf.

finding

finding that he cannot proceed for the clog, he takes it up in a rage, and, to free himself from it, throws it down the precipice, which naturally pulls him after it, and he is commonly killed by the fall. Should this accidentally not be the case, he drags the block again up the mountain and reiterates his efforts, till with increasing fury he either sinks nerveless to the ground, or puts an end to his life by a decisive plunge.

The bear is found not only in all the siberian forests, but also in great plenty in the northern provinces of european Russia. The white or polar bear*, lives on the coasts of the Frozen-ocean, and on some of the eastern and northern isles, where the chace of him is a collateral occupation of the mariners, who visit these coasts for the capture of the morse. Black bears are so numerous in Kamtschatka, that they are seen roaming about the plains in troops, and would infallibly have long since exterminated all the inhabitants were they not here more tame and gentle than in all the world beside. In spring they come in multitudes from the mountains in which they have passed the winter, to the mouths of the rivers, for catching fish, which swarm in all the streams of that peninsula. If there be plenty of this food, they eat nothing but the heads of the fish; and when they find nets laid in any place

* Ursus maritimus.

they

they dexterouſly drag them out of the water and empty them of the fiſh. Towards autumn when the fiſh go up the rivers, they advance with them gradually to the mountains. — When a Kamtſhadale ſpies a bear, he endeavours to conciliate his friendſhip at a diſtance, accompanying his geſtures by courteous words. Indeed they are ſo familiar that the women and girls when they are gathering roots and herbs, or turf for fuel, in the midſt of a whole drove of bears are never diſturbed in their employment by them; and if any one of theſe animals comes up to them, it is only to eat ſomething out of their hand. They have never been known to attack a man, except when they are rouſed from their ſleep, and they ſeldom turn upon the markſman whether they be hit or not. This humane character of the kamtſhadale bear, who differs ſo remarkably from his brethren in all other countries, procures him however no exemption from the perſecutions of mankind. The great utility of this animal, whoſe bodily parts from the ſkin to the entrails are of ſervice to the Kamtſhadales in a thouſand ways, is a ſufficient motive to ſelf-intereſted man to declare eternal war againſt him. When both parties meet, the conteſt is generally bloody, and almoſt always terminates to the advantage of the more artful creature. Armed with ſpears and clubs, the Kamtſhadale goes in queſt of the peaceful bear in his calm retreat, who is meditating no attack, but

but only thinking of his defence, and gravely takes the faggots which his more brutal perſecutor brings him, and with which he himſelf choaks up the entrance to his den. The mouth of the cavern being thus cloſed, the hunter bores a hole through the top, and ſpears with the greateſt ſecurity his defenceleſs foe.

It would be difficult to name a ſpecies of animals, excepting the ſheep, ſo variouſly ſerviceable to man as the bear is after his death to the Kamtſhadales. Of the ſkin of this animal they make beds, covertures, caps, gloves, and collars for their ſledge-dogs. Thoſe who go upon the ice for the capture of marine animals make their ſhoe-ſoals of them, which have this advantage, that the wearer is not in danger of ſlipping with them. The fat of the bear is held in great eſtimation by all the inhabitants of Kamtſhatka, as a very ſavoury and wholeſome nouriſhment; and when melted and thus rendered fluid, it ſupplies the place of oil. The fleſh is reckoned ſuch a dainty, that they ſeldom eat it alone, but uſually invite a number of gueſts to partake of the delicious repaſt. The inteſtines, when cleanſed and properly ſcraped, are worn by the fair ſex as maſks to preſerve their faces from the effects of the ſunbeams, which here, on being reflected from the ſnow, are generally found to blacken the ſkin; by which means the kamtſhadale ladies preſerve a fine complexion: the Ruſſians of Kamtſhatka make

make window-panes of theſe inteſtines, which are as tranſparent and clear as thoſe made of moſcovy-glaſs. Of the ſhoulder-blades are made ſickles for cutting graſs, and the heads and the haunches are hung up by the Kamtſhadales as ornaments or trophies, on the trees about their dwellings *. If the uſes of the bear be ſo various to the Kamtſhadales, not leſs general is the wear of his fine and warm fur by perſons of the higher claſſes in Ruſſia. A light black bearſkin is one of the moſt comfortable and coſtly articles of the winter-wardrobe of a man of faſhion at Peterſburg or Moſco, and even the ſmall white hand of a belle is ſlipt into the large bear-muff which covers the half of her elegant ſhape.

Among the animals already named, the GLUTTON † deſerves to be mentioned on account of his beautiful ſkin. Theſe creatures, at the charge of whom credulous travellers have ſpread ſo many ſurpriſing falſhoods, are found both in northern and ſouthern Siberia, principally about the Anadyr and the Kovyma, where they are famed for their ingenious artifices in taking and killing rein-deer. From the trees they watch theſe harmleſs creatures and ſtrew moſs upon the ground as a bait. Lured by this, as ſoon as the rein-deer comes under the tree, the glutton leaps upon his

* Steller's beſchreibung von Kamtſchatka, p. 113. 116.

† Muſtella gulo.

neck,

neck, ſcratches out his eyes, and torments him with ſuch perſeverance, that the poor ſufferer beats himſelf to death againſt the tree. This done, he buries his prey very carefully in ſeveral places, and never yields to the ſuggeſtions of his ravenous appetite to taſte a morſel till he has depoſited the whole of his proviſion ſafely under ground. With equal cunning the glutton in the diſtricts of the Lena ſubdues the much larger and ſtronger animal the horſe; when tamed however he loſes of his ſavage nature, and becomes by the variety of his entertaining pranks a moſt amuſing companion to his maſter *.

To theſe objects of the chace for furs, laſtly, may be added the following animals with ſhort web-feet, ſince their dwelling and the manner of their capture allow them to be brought under no other rubric: the BEAVER, who is found in the great rivers of Siberia, and in the Sundſha among the mountains of Caucaſus, &c. and the RIVER OR FISH-OTTER, which likewiſe is at home in moſt of the ſiberian and in ſome of the european rivers.

The beaver, ſays the moſt learned naturaliſt of the age, is perhaps the only example ſtill left as an antient monument of the intellectual faculties of the brutes. "As much," continues he, "as "man has raiſed himſelf above the ſtate of ſavage

* Steller, lib. cit. p. 118.

"nature,

" nature, ſo deeply are the animals ſunk below it. " Reduced to ſubjection and ſlavery, or treated as " rebels and diſperſed by force, their ſocial connec- " tions are effaced, their induſtry is impoveriſhed, " and their ſlender accompliſhments vaniſhed. " Each ſeveral ſpecies has loſt its general qualities " and only the individual properties are preſerved, " which with ſome are unfolded by example, " imitation, and training, but with others by " neceſſity and fear, which oblige them to be in- " ceſſantly providing for their ſafety. What " views, what plans can be expected from heart- " leſs ſlaves or from impotent exiles? To exiſt " cringing or eſcaping, or always in ſolitude; to " effect nothing, to produce nothing, to leave " nothing behind; to ſigh, to periſh in miſery; " to propagate without increaſing; in a word, to " loſe in perpetuity as much as they had gained " by time—that is their lot! Thus there are but " few traces remaining of their admirable in- " duſtry, only in thoſe defart regions the exiſt- " ence whereof have been for ages unknown to " mankind, and where every ſpecies is at liberty " to exert its natural talents and quietly bring " them to perfection in a permanent ſtate of ſo- " ciety. An inſulated being, as it proceeded " from the hands of nature, is an unfruitful " being, whoſe faculties are confined to the mere " uſe of his ſenſes; even man, when he is de-

" prived

" prived of the perceptions and ſupport of ſo-
" ciety, produces nothing and effects nothing.
" The ſolitary and inſulated beaver, inſtead of
" ſhewing a cogitation beyond that of the other
" ſpecies of animals, ſeems even, by his mere
" individual capacities, to ſtand far beneath ſome
" of them; his genius and his talents only ſhine
" forth when he lives united in ſociety; and
" even theſe animals never think of building
" unleſs they dwell in deſart regions, where
" men are in ſuch ſmall numbers, that they can-
" not eaſily moleſt them*."

In fact the uninhabited wilds of Canada and Siberia are the only regions in which the beavers are numerous, and even here they herd together only about the ſolitary and unfrequented rivers, therefore they are oftenest found ſingly on the woody banks. The uſefulneſs of this animal ſharpens the perſecuting ſpirit of man, from which he is never ſafe even in the moſt latent coverts. — The ſkin of the beaver has hair of two kinds: the lower immediately next to the hide, are ſhort, implicated together and as fine as down; the upper grow more ſparingly and are thicker and longer. This latter is of little value; but the flix or down is wrought up into hats, ſtockings,

* Buffon, œuvres compl. quadrup. tom. iii. p. 39—41. edit. Par. 8vo.

and

and caps *. — The hunters prefer the winter ſeaſon for ſeeking out the holes of the beaver; they ſtop up the entrance on the ſide next the water with ſtakes, enlarge the vent-hole which they find on the land-ſide, for the purpoſe of putting through it a dog, who is ſo trained that he holds the beaver with his teeth, and lets himſelf be drawn out with it by the hind-feet. The otters are likewiſe either purſued with dogs, or deſtroyed by ſpring-guns placed on the margin of the ſtreams they frequent †.

The importance of the chace for procuring furs is apparent not only from the immenſe conſumption of them within the empire, but alſo from the great demand for them, which notwithſtanding ſtill continues. In a country, where moſt of the provinces may calculate upon a winter of one half the year, protection from the cold is the ſecond neceſſary of life, and the boor in Ruſſia, who is deſtitute of furs, is almoſt as unfortunate as the peaſant in France who has loſt his winter proviſion of corn. A well-informed author, who ſeems to have a thorough knowledge of the natural wealth and induſtry of Ruſſia, has attempted

* The beaver's flix
Gives kindlieſt warmth to weak enervate limbs,
When the pale blood flow riſes through the veins.
Dyer's Fleece.

† Pallas, travels, tom. iii. p. 88.

to reckon up the value of the products with which the chace for furs annually increaſes the national treaſure of that country, and thinks the amount of all the ſkins thus procured in one year muſt be eſtimated at leaſt at five millions of rubles *. But though the accounts of the ſale of the furs to foreign countries be founded on authentic documents, the reſults of them are not the leſs defective. In the year 1768 Ruſſia ſold to the value of 490,000 rubles, and in the year 1793 furs to the amount of 396,000 rubles were exported from all the ſea-ports, thoſe of the Caſpian excepted; and yet the exportation by land is not here included, which according to the greateſt probability may be ſtated as high and even higher †. — But,

* Hermann's ſtatiſtiſche ſchilderung von Ruſsland, p. 455. In this calculation, however, the ſkins of the ſea-animals are compriſed, the capture whereof will be deſcribed in the ſequel of this book. — Beſides, ſuch eſtimates are nothing more than exerciſes for perſons who ſtudy ſtatiſtics, as, with the completeſt information concerning all the facts relating to this matter, it is ſeldom poſſible to come near the truth, and ſtill ſeldomer to be convinced of the accuracy of the reſults. See on this ſubject Hupel's verſuch die ſtaatſverf. des ruſſ. reichs darzuſtellen, tom. ii. p. 265—274.

† The articles of this exportation, with the ſtated amount of their value, are as follow:

Grey hare-ſkins - - - - - - -	226,215 rubles
White hare and cat-ſkins and ſacks	31,723
Squirrels-ſkins and ſacks - - - -	26,712

Lamb-

But, notwithſtanding this ſuperfluity which Ruſſia delivers to the foreigner, yet the importation of the very ſame objects forms a very conſiderable article, as may be ſeen from the ſingle inſtance that in the laſt-mentioned year, furs to the amount of 256,000 rubles were brought into the port of St. Peterſburg alone, among which we find 79,000 rubles worth of otter-ſkins, and beaver-ſkins to the value of 29,000. Unleſs this importation conſiſt in part at leaſt of ruſſian products, brought hither by ſea only on account of the eaſier tranſport, this particular of the cuſtom-houſe liſts ought ſurely to be matter of concern to every true Ruſſian, as it naturally ſtrikes us with ſurpriſe, that a country ſo richly ſtocked with wild animals of

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Lamb-ſkins and ſacks - - - -	14,864
Bear-ſkins - - - - - - - - -	18,013
Ermine and rock-fox ſkins and ſacks	13,309
Fox and marten-ſkins and ſacks - -	8,543
Muffs and various ſorts of furs - -	8,305
Tulupes (morning-gowns) - - -	4,886
Wolf-ſkins and furs - - - - -	3,325
Sable-ſkins and ſacks - - - - -	442

The cuſtom-houſe liſts however give the exportation of furs but very incompletely, being by reaſon of their lightneſs and ſmall bulk very commodiouſly tranſported by land. Of the furs which go to Germany, Poland, China, Perſia, &c. the amount is unknown, but probably far exceeds the export by ſea.

every kind ſhould be dependent on foreign induſtry in this claſs of its neceſſaries*.

How uſeful ſoever the ſeveral claſſes of animals we have here been conſidering may be to the inhabitants of the ruſſian empire by their ſkins, of no inferior conſequence are the remaining objects of the chace either as to inland conſumption or to foreign commerce. That we may not too greatly ſwell the catalogue, we will name only ſome of the moſt remarkable, the products of which are become an article of trade. To theſe belong, for the ſecond time, the BEAVER, who, beſide his ſkin, affords alſo the caſtoreum exported by Ruſſia in various quantities every year. Next follows the CASTOR, which abounds in Siberia and eſpecially in ſome provinces, particularly about Kraſnoyarſk, to ſo great a degree, that the male, which on account of his bag is dearer than the female, coſts no more than from thirty to fifty kopeeks, and the female, ſkin and fleſh together,

* In the year 1794 this importation was yet more conſiderable, the articles and value being,

Beaver-ſkins	332,350 rubles
Otter-ſkins	139,741
Other furs	117,959
Together	590,050

Guldenſtædt allows for the whole importation in furs of the year 1768, which he ſpecifies to have conſiſted in wolves, foxes, fiſh-otters, and beavers, only 41,000 rubles.

will

will ſcarcely fetch ten *. The BISAM-RAT is alſo very common about the lakes in the confines of the Samara, the Volga, the Kama, and the Don. The ſkins of theſe animals are to be had at an extremely low price, ſince they are only uſed as ordinary edgings; though they might be far more uſefully employed in the making of felt for hats, as they conſiſt almoſt entirely of a fine ſoft wool, which in delicacy and gloſſineſs yields in no degree to that of the beaver, though it is ſomewhat ſhorter. The biſam-rat is generally taken in autumn and ſpring, and commonly found ſuffocated in fiſh-weels and nets, though from the ſtructure of their inward parts they are adapted to remain long under water. This animal makes his holes in the high banks of the lakes under the water, yet ſo that they ſlant upwards, and the burrow remains always dry. In winter therefore he has only the ſubterranean air to breathe; but when the ice diſſolves, they come in numbers, to ſport in the ſun, on the ſurface of the water. The beſt organ of the biſam-rat is his very ſenſible and nervous ſnout; for his eyes are ſtill ſmaller than the mole's, and his ears are grown up with hairs. The effluvia emitted by the matter contained in

* Pallas, travels, tom. iii. p. 12. As moſt of the ſtatements of the price of theſe ſeveral articles are drawn from the travels of the peterſburg academicians, it is poſſible that the value of thoſe products may have riſen ſomewhat in the courſe of rather more than twenty years.

the glands under the ſkin of his tail, is of a far more penetrating and permanent nature than that of even the beſt muſk *.

The native country of the muſk-animal † is the moſt elevated region of Aſia, between the alpine heights of Altay and the mountains which divide Thibet from India; hence this ſpecies, which is about the ſize of a deer of the ſecond head, ſeems to have retreated to the northern territories, where it is at preſent found. In the choice of its habitation it much reſembles the fallow-deer and ſhamois-goat, living only on bare rocks, between lofty mountains overgrown with pines and firs, or covered with ſnow. The muſk, which conſiſts of a brown, friable and greaſy ſubſtance, only collects in the males in a ſort of bag in the umbilical region. The largeſt bladder, which is commonly no bigger than a hen's egg, contains, according to Tavernier's account, not quite an ounce and an half of muſk.

The beſt muſk is the thibetan, probably from the warmth of the climate and the odoriferous plants on which theſe animals feed. In Siberia, the bag in which the bezoar ſoon dries is immediately cleanſed from all dirt and hairs: only a part is left remaining near the aperture, in order to give it a reſemblance to that of Thibet. The ſiberian is of a much fainter perfume, and ap-

* Pallas, travels, tom. i. p. 130. 156.

† Moſchuſthier, biſamthier, moſchi ferus.

proaches

proaches more to the caſtoreum: it is conſequently alſo much cheaper. The pureſt muſk is that which the creature itſelf drops on ſtones or trunks of trees, againſt which it is fond of rubbing when the bag becomes full and the matter thereby too irritating; the muſk found in the bag is ſeldom good, as it has not yet come to its proper maturity. — As this valuable commodity is only obtained from the males of theſe wild animals, and the conſumption being ſo great, it is natural to imagine that a conſiderable contraband trade muſt be carried on in it. Good genuine muſk muſt be of a deep brown, rather inclining to red, dry, and friable, but at the ſame time ſomewhat greaſy, and of ſo ſtrong an odour, as frequently to draw blood from the noſe. Among naturaliſts it ſerves as a proof of the infinitely fine diviſibility of matter, as even gold and ſilver veſſels admit the ſcent of it; and in arſenals and armories are ſeen old damaſked blades, which ſtill always retain a moderate ſmell of muſk. Beſides its medicinal uſes, it is the ground-work of all perfumeries, for which purpoſe it is rendered more ſoluble and poignant by ſugar. — The Dutch, the Engliſh, and the Portugueſe at preſent are the greateſt european dealers in muſk. The muſk of Thibet or Tonquin in bladders in 1788 coſt at Amſterdam from ten to fiftéen guldens the ounce. The arabian phyſicians firſt made it known to Europe in the eleventh century; yet it is mentioned by

authors ſo early as the fifth century. It ſeems to have been totally unknown to the Greeks and Romans *.

Among the animals that are ſought as well for their fleſh as for their ſkin, the firſt to be named is the ROE-BUCK †, which ſtrays in herds about the Irtyſh, the Yeniſſey and in Daouria; and is likewiſe found in the confines of the Samara, the Sok, and in the regions of Caucaſus. A tenant of nearly the ſame diſtricts is the STAG ‡, whoſe degenerate race the deer § is not unfrequently ſeen in Taurida. A third very conſiderable object of the chace is the ELK, which roams over all Siberia, within the 65th degree of latitude, beyond which he is never ſeen: likewiſe in Ruſſia proper even about the Ladoga-lake and in Livonia. — Of theſe animals a very great number are killed every year. The ordinary hunting-ſeaſon is towards March; about which time the ſun has melted the ſurface of the ſnow to a conſiſtence which allows the hunter eaſily to follow his trade in large wooden ſnow-ſhoes; whereas the beaſts, with their claws, break through this cruſt, and are hindered in running. They are followed by the track, driven into vallies, where the ſnow is drifted frequently to the depth of ſeveral ells, and there are either

* Journal des luxus und der moden, May 1794. Compare with Valmont de Bomare dictionnaire d'hiſtoire naturelle, art. Gazelle. Edit. Paris, tom. iv. p. 37.

† Cervus Capreolus. The Dikaya koza in Siberia, is very improperly called the wild goat.

‡ Cervus elaphus. § Cervus dama.

ſhot,

ſhot, or kept at bay by the dogs till the purſuer can come up and kill them with his lance. The roe-buck particularly is ſo liable to wound himſelf in the feet by flight, that he is very ſoon incapable of running. The elks often ſtand on their defence againſt the dogs, killing ſeveral of them with their hoofs, which are the uſual weapons of this animal. In many parts likewiſe the roe-buck and the elk are caught in ſtrong gins and diſpatched by ſpring-guns, which, where the country is woody, are faſtened to the trees. The ſkin of the roe-buck ſells cheap, and becauſe they are very light and eaſily turn off the wet, are frequently uſed by the peaſants as coverings to their huts, and ſometimes made into winter garments: about Kraſnoyarſk they are in ſuch plenty, that, fleſh and all, they ſcarcely fetch fifteen kopecks a-piece. Generally, therefore, it is only their ſkin that is brought to market, which may be had for about ten kopecks. The Tartars pay a good part of their tribute in the ſkins of elks and large ſtags, which are accepted at the offices of the crown, for the uſe of the cavalry, at the rate of ſixty to a hundred and twenty kopecks for every one.

The REIN-DEER is extremely numerous through the whole of northern and eaſtern Siberia; leſs frequent about the Ural and in the european north. This exceedingly uſeful creature, which with many nations of the northern climes is a domeſtic animal, muſt be treated of in that reſpect in ſome future ſection, we ſhall here conſider him

only as a beaſt of chace. In woody diſtricts, where ſpringes, fire-arms, and ſpring-guns are applicable, they are the moſt uſual means reſorted to for taking or killing the rein-deer; but in the open downs adjacent to the ſea, where theſe contrivances would fail, the Samoyedes, the Oſtiaks, the Tunguſes, and others, have invented different arts, of which, as an example, we ſhall take thoſe of the Samoyedes. The rein-deer are wont to go in herds from ten to a hundred, and ſometimes even two hundred are ſeen together. When the Samoyedes go out in parties, and perceive one of theſe herds, they ſtation their tame rein-deer on an elevated plain to the windward, then ſtick up, from this place to the ſavage herd as near as they can venture to come, without betraying themſelves by the weather, long ſticks, at ſmall diſtances aſunder, in the ſnow, to which gooſe-wings are tied, to be fluttered freely by the wind. This done, they plant the like pinions on the other ſide, under the wind; and, the rein-deer being buſy with their paſture beneath the ſnow, and being chiefly guided by their ſcent, they generally obſerve nothing of all theſe preparations. When every thing is ready the hunters ſeparate; ſome hide themſelves behind their ſnowy entrenchments, while others lie with bows and other weapons in the open air to leeward, and others again go to a diſtance and drive by a circuitous route the game between the terrific pinions. Scared by theſe,

theſe, the wild rein-deer run directly to the tame ones which are ſtanding with the ſledges; but here they are alarmed at the concealed hunters, who drive them to their companions that are provided with arms, who immediately commit great ſlaughter among them. — If it ſo happen, that a ſavage herd are feeding in the proximity of a mountain, then the hunters hang up all their clothes on ſtakes about the foot of the mountain, making alſo with the ſame frightful pinions a broad paſſage towards it, in which they drive the game together from a diſtance. As ſoon as they are come into this gangway, the women go with the ſledges right acroſs the farther end of it, ſhutting the rein-deer in, who immediately run round the mountain, and at every round are ſaluted by the ſhot of the hunters.

As on ſuch occaſions a number of people are requiſite, the Samoyedes have recourſe to other inventions to deceive the caution of theſe animals. The markſman goes, for example, clad entirely in rein-deer ſkins, ſtooping in the middle of five or ſix rein-deer trained to this purpoſe, which he leads by a rope faſtened to his girdle, and thus is enabled to approach very near to the wild herd, without being betrayed. In autumn, when the rein-deer are in heat, the hunters chooſe out a vigorous buck from their droves, to whoſe antlers they tie nooſes, and then turn him looſe among the wild herd. The wild ſtag, on ſpying a ſtrange rival

rival capering among his females, ruſhes on to fight him. During the combat he ſo entangles his antlers in the loops, that when he deſcries the hunter and ſtrives to eſcape, the tame buck ſtrikes his head to the ground and there pins his antagoniſt faſt till the markſman can kill him *.

The SHAMOIS † and the BEZOAR-GOAT ‡ are an object of chace to the caucaſean nations, in whoſe mountains they abound. The EVECK § is likewiſe a native of theſe as well as the mountains of Siberia. ANTELOPES traverſe in droves the ſteppes about the Don, in the diſtricts of the Volga, the Ural, the Irtyſh, and in the territory of Nertſchinſk; another ſpecies of wild-goat, the zobkozel, or CRAW-GOAT ||, lives in Daouria and in the confines of Mongolia. The firſt is found in greateſt plenty, yet never tranſgreſſes the bounds to the north of the 55th degree of latitude. The horns of this animal are ſometimes eleven inches long; his face is imperfect, as the eye-ball is obſcured by a ſpungy excreſcence on the brow. Perhaps nature intended by this to temper the glare of the ſteppes which give birth to the antelopes. In return ſhe has endowed him with acuter olfactory organs, by which he has the faculty of ſcenting both men and wild beaſts, when the wind is favourable, at the diſtance of ſeveral verſts. It

* Pallas, travels, tom. iii. p. 89.
† Capra rupicapra.
‡ Capra bezoardica.
§ Capra ibex.
|| Antilope gutturoſa.

is

is ſurpriſing that this animal, which ſeems as it were framed for running, ſince it is apparently for that purpoſe that he is provided with a wind-pipe of nearly two inches in diameter, large lungs, and wide noſtrils, ſhould be more eaſily put out of breath, when hunted or vexed, than any other animal. The chace, on their running nags, of the antelopes is a favourite diverſion of the Mongoles and the daourian Tunguſes of the ſteppes. For this purpoſe they unite in companies of fifty, of a hundred, or of two hundred perſons, all well mounted and provided with led horſes, all likewiſe armed with bows and hunting-ſpears, and every one having with him a trained dog. They chooſe one of the company for their leader, who directs the chace, and has the command while it laſts. When the hunt is to proceed, early in the morning three or four men, who have a keen eye-ſight, are ſent forwards, that from certain elevations are to look round for game; and where they perceive them in troops to ſtand ſtill till the whole party is come up to them, to whom they point out, by ſigns agreed on, on which ſide the beaſts are feeding, and what courſe they ought to take. In purſuance of theſe ſignals the company diſperſe, and gradually form a ſpacious arch, in which each man is not above ſixty or eighty fathom diſtant from the other, and by which the herd is cautiouſly ſurrounded. As ſoon as theſe latter are aware of the hunters, and are betaking themſelves

themſelves to flight, they ruſh in on all ſides, at full gallop, upon them; who, panic ſtruck at the ſhouts of the ſportſmen and the whizzing of their javelins, ſtart different ways, but are ſlain in great numbers from the dexterity acquired by all the nations of the daourian ſteppes, who make it one of their conſtant exerciſes to ſhoot and throw their weapons at a mark. The chace is ſtill more productive when the ſcene of it happens to lie near a river or a mountainous foreſt; for the goats of the ſteppes have this ſingular property, that they never take to the water, though long and furiouſly haraſſed, but rather ſtrive to eſcape by ſudden and vaſt leaps through the troops of their purſuers. They are almoſt equally ſhy of foreſts. No ſooner are they hunted into a wood than they are ſo bewildered among the trees as not to be able to flee a hundred paces, but run their heads againſt every tree, and ſoon fall breathleſs *.

The WILD SHEEP †, called by the Mongoles argali, and the ROCK-RAM, kamennoi-baran, are met with in the ſayane, the nertſchinſkian and altayan mountains, alſo in Daouria, on Caucaſus and in Kamtſhatka. The argali is larger and more powerful than the dam ſtag ‡; but the ram is larger ſtill, whoſe exuberant horns alone weigh full forty pounds. The winter coat of this ani-

* Pallas, travels, tom. i. p. 402. tom. iii. p. 204.

† Capra amon. ‡ Cervus dama.

mal

mal is long and ſhaggy, much mixed with wool; whereas the ſummer hair is ſhort and ſleek. They live on ſolitary, dry, and woody mountains and rocks, where they can feed on the various bitter and acrid mountain-herbs. The ſtag is not ſo ſhy as the argali, with which it is almoſt impoſſible to come up. They are of uncommon ſpeed in running, and when purſued make tortuous circuits, and often double upon the hunters. Though this animal be ſo wild when full grown, nothing is ſo eaſy to tame as the lambs that are taken, and to habituate them to milk and fodder. The kamennoi-baran keeps entirely to the high inacceſſible rocks and never approaches inhabited diſtricts. — The WILD BOAR is found in the ſteppes of the Samara and the Volga, in the confines of the river Ural, in Daouria, and even about the Irtyſh. Between the Ural and the Yemba they are extremely numerous; where they are hunted in winter by the Kozaks, not without danger, with dogs, and killed ſometimes with carabines, and ſometimes with lances. Theſe animals, who feed ſolely on the roots of ſea-weed and ſedge, grow to ſuch an extraordinary ſize, that they are frequently found weighing upwards of ſix hundred pounds; their bacon is near four inches thick in fat, though their fleſh in general is dry and firm, and well flavoured.

Of the ſeveral generally-known ſpecies of eatable wild animals, Ruſſia is in poſſeſſion of no ſmall

ſmall ſtore; but we ſhall here break off from any farther account of them, leſt we begin to burden the reader's patience with zoological deſcriptions, which he may find in books already in his poſſeſſion. In the more cultivated and thickly-inhabited diſtricts of the empire, this valuable proviſion has been long becoming ſcarcer from day to day; but there are ſtill large tracts enough in which theſe ſpecies of animals may multiply unmoleſted, and where mankind have not yet contended with them for the dominion over the earth and its productions.

WILD-FOWL is likewiſe everywhere here in great abundance, ſo that even the moſt cultivated regions can ſuffer no want. Among the moſt favoury, as well as moſt common kinds of them, are wild ducks and geeſe, ſwans, woodcocks, ſnipes, buſtards, ſnow-birds, pheaſants, partridges, &c. The FLOCK-BIRDS are particularly remarkable, which come in flights from the northern climes to the ſouthern ſteppes, where, upon the innumerable lakes, they find an agreeable ſojourn and plenty of food. The flocks of theſe birds that come in the ſpring acroſs the water abide upon the warm ſteppes early left by the ſnow, where they pick up their nouriſhment from the ſprouting herbs, only till the northern rivers are free from ice. Then they are ſeen to ſteer their courſe northwards, which generally happens about the beginning of April. Some ſpecies of them go quite

quite away; moſt of them remain in moderate numbers behind, and people the ſouthern lakes; while others ſettle entirely in the warmer diſtricts. All the birds that have neſted in the north fly back again in autumn ſouthwards, and remain in the well-watered diſtricts, generally till the winter ſets in, when they tend farther ſouthward, compelled to wing their lofty flight acroſs the ſea, to which certain kinds of them are impelled by an unknown inſtinct. Firſt come the common wild geeſe and ſeveral ſpecies of ducks; ſoon afterwards the northern geeſe and cranes; and laſtly the ice-duck in great multitudes. As ſoon as the people of theſe regions perceive the arrival of the birds, which alight upon the lakes in innumerable companies, the capture of them begins, which the boors carry on when the harveſt is got in. This ſort of fowling is in ſome diſtricts, for inſtance in the government of Ufa, ſo remarkable, that it deſerves to be here particulariſed. The geeſe are caught flying, in nets, in the following manner:

The ſpot for this purpoſe muſt be choſen near a lake, having the greater part, or at leaſt one ſide of it, ſurrounded by a birch-wood. As it is the cuſtom of the geeſe to fly every morning at ſun-riſe to paſture on the corn-fields, and at evening to return to the lake, the fowlers having remarked the track they take, ſet to work to cut,

once for all, a broad viſta in the wood in that direction, which the geeſe ſoon diſcover, and preſently take to it: as it is difficult for them to fly aloft, and this ſaves them that neceſſity. At the diſtance of five-and-twenty or thirty fathom from the lake, two high birches are left ſtanding in the opening made in the wood, ſtripped of their branches; and between theſe the net is placed, about thirty ells in length, and from ſeven to ten ells in breadth, and reſting on two forked poles with ſharp points, the moving whereof the fowler has in his command by means of a cord. The net being thus ſet in the night, the boor goes back as far behind it as the cord will reach, lays himſelf down in the graſs, and expects his prey. The geeſe commonly begin to riſe an hour before the ſun; and being unable, juſt at peep of day, to ſee the net, they infallibly fly into it; on which the rope is immediately ſlackened, and the geeſe cloſe the net upon themſelves by their own momentum. In this manner, ten, twenty, and more geeſe, are ſnared at a time, which yield one of the moſt ſavoury roaſts in the world; and ſcarcely ever do the boors go out of a night for this purpoſe without ſucceſs.

The ſame contrivance is made uſe of by the Oſtiaks of the Oby, in whoſe northern climates the flock-fowl arrive much earlier. As this happens uſually at the firſt thawing weather, and the birds

are

are apt to ſettle on their feet, the Oſtiaks ſtrew aſhes on the ſnow, to make it diſſolve the ſooner, placing ſtuffed birds as decoys, near which they watch the game. They have even invented means for catching birds in the air by broad day-light. To this end the bird-catcher, in parts of the foreſt which he has cleared of trees, and where his feathered prey are accuſtomed to take their flight, makes a hut of wattles, from which he can obſerve them without being perceived. The net is laid on the ground in readineſs, tied to a cord which runs over upright poles. Whenever the Oſtiak thinks the flying birds are near enough, he ſpreads the net in the air by means of the lines, which are very eaſily moved; whereupon the heavy-bodied birds, who can ſeldom mount high, are entangled and taken. Should that happen, however, then the Oſtiaks have already placed at ſome diſtance ſeveral decoy-geeſe, and having the art of imitating ſo exactly the calling ſounds of theſe birds by a piece of birch-bark in their mouths, that the flock of them forget the net, ſettle about the decoy-geeſe, and thus become a ſecond time a prey to the fowler. — As for the ſmaller aquatic-birds, none of theſe northern people think it worth their while to catch them; at moſt they employ themſelves in taking the larger kinds of ducks, and the abundance of theſe wild birds is ſo great, that the inhabitants are enabled to ſalt proviſion of them enough for the whole

year, and in the ſpring have ſtill a number remaining to throw away*.

In the ſouthern aſtrakhan ſteppes they make uſe of an ingenious and ſimple invention for catching on the level-ground the heathcocks, which are here in great abundance. The bird-catcher, to this purpoſe, provides himſelf with a ſcreen of white-linen ſtretched in a frame and with it can be drawn together; to this he adds a cylindrical net ſixteen feet in length held ſpread out by cords, and at its open end he puts two wings which are ever getting farther from each other. When he goes fowling, he holds the ſcreen before him, that the birds may not perceive him, at the ſame time following them with his eyes through a hole made in the linen. As ſoon as he deſcries a flock of heathcocks, he ſpreads the net which he carries at his back, ſome hundred paces from them in the manner above deſcribed, taking ſuch a poſition, that the game come in a line with the ſcreen and the net. Then with the former he makes a ſlight noiſe and drives the birds gradually between the wings and towards the net, into which theſe timid and ſilly creatures ſpontaneouſly run †.

The common ſorts of water-fowl and the ſeveral gallinaceous ſpecies, are ſo plenty, and that even

* Pallas, travels, tom. ii. p. 324. tom. iii. p. 92.

† Gmelinſtadt's travels through Ruſſia and in the caucaſean mountains; tom. ii. p. 96.

in the governments which are the pooreſt in wild animals, that they form an ordinary and not very coſtly diſh. Even Livonia is conſiderably rich in well-flavoured wild-fowl, and the price of it in ſome parts at a diſtance from towns is ſo low, that a buſtard, ſometimes of twenty pounds weight, coſts no more than thirty or forty kopeeks*. In the government of St. Peterſburg, where the foreſts are already very thin, and where the prodigious demands of the reſidence make an exceedingly great proviſion neceſſary, partridges, pheaſants, woodcocks, ſnipes, ſnow-birds, and heath-cocks, are amongſt the moſt common birds that are eaten. Here the woodcocks even keep together in families, and the capture of them is very productive. But the greater part of theſe articles of conſumption come frozen to the populous towns in winter from diſtant foreſts. Packed up in ſnow, and preſerved from putrefaction by the cold, they are often brought many thouſand verſts to a great market, where the price of them is notwithſtanding very moderate.

Ere we cloſe this article, we muſt not forget to mention one more ſpecies of wild birds the chace whereof is alike important both to induſtry and luxury, that is, the EIDER-FOWL, which harbour about the coaſts of the White-ſea and the North-

* Friede's phyſical, œconomical, and ſtatiſtical remarks on Livonia and Eſthonia, p. 252.

ern-ocean. It is this bird which ſupplies the fine and ſoft down that in all countries is ſo much eſteemed. In order to obtain it the fowler muſt expoſe himſelf to the greateſt dangers, as the eider-fowl uſually make their neſts in clefts of the rocks or on inacceſſible cliffs, and never come far on land from the iſlands or ſea-coaſts. One of theſe neſts contains five or ſix eggs *, carefully covered with feathers, plucked by theſe birds from their own breaſts. When they are driven out of one neſt, they build another, which they again fill with down, and when this alſo is become a prey to their rapacious perſecutor, they build a third and laſt, which they line more copiouſly with down than either of the former. All the feathers which the eider-bird does not itſelf pluck out are ſhort and coarſe; but even thoſe which are taken out of the neſts muſt be carefully

* Theſe eggs are far ſuperior in taſte to thoſe of any of the domeſtic poultry, and are therefore in great requeſt in the parts about Kola as an agreeable and important article of food. From this circumſtance, and from the early robbing the neſts of the down before the birds have reared their young, they are already become very ſcarce about Kola. If the people would but leave this latter, the eider-fowl would not indeed that ſummer make the ſecond and third neſts, but this loſs would be amply compenſated by their greater increaſe. Beſides, in an undiſturbed neſt far more down is found, and the benefit derived from the ſecond and third neſts is very uncertain, as theſe are commonly built at a great diſtance, and on the ſummits of inacceſſible rocks.

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cleanſed, whence it is, that of a pood of down collected, ſcarce fifteen pound is obtained clear, which ſome few years ago was ſold at Archangel at two rubles the pound*. The greater part of the down brought to market at Archangel comes from Novaya Zemlia and Spitzbergen, where the people who go out for the capture of ſea-animals occaſionally collect it; in the diſtrict of Kola it is not indeed found in ſuch quantities, but on account of the ſmaller vent for it, it is much cheaper than at Archangel.

This eider-down and the common ſorts of feathers, collected from other birds, form no inconſiderable article of exportation; for in the year 1793, for example, it amounted to 10,551 pound, the value of which exceeded 85,000 rubles. So much the more amazing it is that Ruſſia imports annually quills to the value of more than a thouſand rubles. They are indeed drawn; but as this art is very eaſy, that expence, which inconſiderable as it is, is always unneceſſary, deſerves ſome inquiry. If the tame geeſe ſhould prove not ſufficient to ſupply this deficiency, nothing more is neceſſary than to make uſe of the feathers of the wild fowl, and particularly the ſwans, which in many parts uncommonly abound. — At any rate this chace might be rendered more profitable, were it to be extended to ſeveral ſpecies of wild

* Guldenſtædt's academical diſcourſe in the St. Peterſburg journal, vol. iv. p. 38.

fowl at preſent held in no eſtimation in Ruſſia, and which would eſpecially be a moſt acceptable buſineſs for the Kalmuks and the nogayian Tartars, who are very expert in falconry. From many kinds of birds likewiſe feathers for beds might be obtained, which would doubly repay the trouble attending it, and this uſeful luxury be rendered more general in Ruſſia. Then, were the fleſh to be ſalted down, a new material of conſumption, and a new branch of inland commerce would be gained. The feathers of the white herns, great and ſmall, make a part of the ornaments of dreſs with the ladies of Europe, and are likewiſe uſed to decorate the turkiſh turbans, on the ſtage, and on other occaſions: Ruſſia might ſave the expence of this article of faſhion, if the chace of thoſe fowl, which are very common about the Caſpian and the Euxine, were more diligently purſued. —Not the ſuperfluity of products left to grow wild, but the variety, choice, and direction of the induſtry of the natives, are the means by which the wealth of nations is augmented; and it is proved by more than one example, that countries favoured with the greateſt bounties of nature, are dependent for the neceſſaries of life on poorer climes.

END OF THE SECOND VOLUME.

HAVING no room left me, except this, for correcting a miſtake in my former edition * concerning captain Richard Chancellor, and his expedition to the coaſts of the White-ſea, rather than neglect it entirely, becauſe it was ſuggeſted to me too late for rectification in its proper place, I thought it beſt here to inſert the whole paſſage as now reformed, and to embrace that opportunity for adding the documents concerning the firſt eſtabliſhment of the Engliſh in Ruſſia, which I have ſince obtained.

Upwards of two centuries and a half had the Hanſe monopolized almoſt the whole of the foreign trade to Ruſſia; and now the decline of Novgorod, the induſtry of the livonian cities, and the appearance of ſhips, from other countries, in the Baltic, were threatening the downfall of the hanſeatic commerce, when an unexpected diſcovery brought the Engliſh acquainted with a ſea, the coaſts whereof offered them an immediate connection with the inland provinces of the ruſſian empire. This ſtroke was deciſive. The Hanſe,

* Book xii. ſect. 1. in the preſent edition vol. iii. p. 431. The inadvertence was firſt pointed out to me by a writer in the Monthly Magazine, July 1, 1800, when that part of the work was already printed, the third volume having, for ſome typographical reaſons, been finiſhed before the ſecond.

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by its ſuperiority in the Baltic, had excluded all the maritime nations from the ruſſian commerce; to prevent their ſailing to the White-ſea, was beyond the reach of their power. The trade with Ruſſia, which had hitherto been in ſome meaſure a monopoly of the hanſeatic league, was now opened to all commercial nations, though, for a long time afterwards, it was confined entirely to the Engliſh.

This country, from its inſular ſituation, and other circumſtances, being more favoured by nature for navigation and commerce than any other in Europe, had only of late begun to perceive and to employ theſe advantages. Long had ſhe been dependent in her maritime commerce on the german, flemiſh, and italian induſtry; but her very firſt exertions on that element, which ſhe at preſent rules, evidently ſhewed what was to be expected from her. The diſcovery of the ſouthern paſſage to the Eaſtindies, had entirely diſlocated the former ſyſtem of general commerce; the indian traffic, the grand object of mercantile efforts, had thereby fallen into the hands of the Portugueze, who were reſolved to appropriate it excluſively to themſelves. By this way it was next to impoſſible for any other nation to obtain even the ſlighteſt ſhare; England therefore bent her endeavours to find out another. The Portugueze had circumnavigated Africa: the Engliſh ventured

tured now upon the trial, whether it might not be practicable to ſail round Europe *.

It was in the year 1553, during the reign of king Edward VI. that the famous navigator, Sebaſtian Cabot, made the propoſal to go in queſt of a north-eaſt paſſage to China and the Indies. Three ſhips were fitted out for this enterpriſe, and ſir Hugh Willoughby had the chief command. He ſailed from Deptford, and reached the 72d degree of north latitude. Here the veſſels were diſperſed in a violent ſtorm, and one of them went to the bottom. Willoughby ran his ſhip into a harbour of ruſſian Lapland, where he was frozen to death with all his crew. Only the third ſhip, the Bonaventure, commanded by Richard Chancellor, happily reached Wardhuys, in Norway, whence, after waiting ſome time in fruitleſs expectation of being joined by the reſt, he proſecuted his voyage to the White-ſea. Here he entered the mouth of the Dvina, and dropped anchor near the monaſtery of St. Nicholas, juſt at the place where afterwards the harbour of the archangel Michael was conſtructed. From this

* Hackluyt's principal navigations of the engliſh nation.—Coxe's travels through Ruſſia, vol. ii.—Clementis Adami, Anglorum navigatio ad Moſcovitas. Rer. Moſc. auct. var. p. 142, et ſeq.—Von der erſten ankunft der Englander und der errichtung ihres handels in Rufsland, von J. Bacmeiſter, im St. Peterſb. Journ. tom. ix. p. 83—104. 139—174. 220—227.

monaſtery

monaſtery Chancellor named the place where he had ſtationed his ſhip, the bay of St. Nicholas.—This memorable event happened ſeven hundred years ſubſequent to the diſcovery of Othere, and about thirteen hundred years after the firſt detection of theſe coaſts. For a ſpace of three hundred and thirty-ſix years, the White-ſea had not been navigated.

The engliſh expedition, which ſet out on its commiſſion under ſuch unfavourable auſpices, had not indeed been able completely to attain its proper object; yet the accidental diſcovery here made by Chancellor, ſeemed to him ſome compenſation for his defeated expectations. He no ſooner learnt that the ſhore on which he had landed belonged to Ruſſia, than he perceived the great benefit that was likely to ariſe to the commerce of his country, from this fortunate diſcovery. Accordingly he replied to the interrogatories of the ruſſian voyvodes, that he was come in the deſign of concerting a mercantile connection with Ruſſia.

Tzar Ivan Vaſſillievitch, having intelligence of the arrival of theſe ſtrangers, immediately ordered them to be conducted to Moſco, at his expence. This diſcovery was the more agreeable to him, as the ſelf-intereſted behaviour of the Hanſa had long ſince excited his diſpleaſure, and particularly as the wars he was then carrying on in Livonia greatly impeded the trade to his country by the Baltic,

Baltic. Inceſſantly occupied with the idea of raiſing the conſequence of his empire, and improving the manners of his people by a nearer intercourſe with foreign nations, he deſcried in this event the germ of a moral revolution, which he had already taken ſo much pains to bring about. Chancellor was admitted to an audience, at which he preſented to the tzar a letter from his ſovereign, directed to all the northern and oriental princes, and drawn up in ſeveral languages. Theſe letters were expreſſive of a deſire to enter into a treaty of amity and commerce, with ſuch princes and nations as might be diſcovered by the engliſh navigators.

Some dutch merchants from Novgorod, who happened juſt then to be in Moſco, uſed every artifice to inſtil ſuſpicions into the tzar, that the Engliſhmen were a gang of pirates; but the tzar treated their baſe ſuggeſtions with due contempt. Captain Chancellor had ſeveral conferences with the officers of ſtate, and at length obtained an epiſtolary anſwer to his monarch, in which the Engliſh were certified of meeting with every poſſible encouragement in ſettling a trade with Ruſſia. The letter was compoſed in the ruſſian tongue, accompanied with a german tranſlation.

The account given by Chancellor on his return, excited a very lively ſatisfaction in England. The undertakers of the firſt voyage of diſcovery, had hitherto formed only a private partnerſhip; they were

were now incorporated, by a charter of queen Mary, into a company, as already ſubſiſting, under the title of MERCHANTS ADVENTURERS FOR THE DISCOVERY OF LANDS UNKNOWN. In the year 1555, Chancellor made a ſecond voyage to Ruſſia, taking with him ſome agents from the company, provided by their conſtituents with a ſet of circumſtantial inſtructions; at the ſame time he conveyed to the tzar a letter ſubſcribed by Philip and Mary. — On this occaſion the company, which we ſhall henceforth ſuccinctly call the RUSSIA COMPANY, received from the tzar a patent of licence to ſettle and trade in all parts of the ruſſian dominions, free of all taxes and impoſts whatever.

As theſe ſeveral documents and records ſtill ſubſiſt in the engliſh of the times, and copies of them being in the hands of very few perſons, I ſhall here inſert them for the ſatisfaction of the reader.

" Ivan Vaſſillievitch, by the grace of God, emperour of Ruſſia, great duke of Novgorod, Moſcouia, &c. to all people that ſhall ſee, reade, heare, or vnderſtand theſe preſents, greeting. Foraſmuch as God hath planted all realmes and dominions in the whole world with ſundry commodities, ſo as the one hath need of the amity and commodities of the other, and by meanes thereof, traffike vſed from one to another, and amity thereby increaſed; and for that as amongſt

men nothing is more to be desired then amity, without the which no creature, being of a naturall good disposition, can liue in quietnesse, so that it is as troublesome to be vtterly wanting, as it is perceiued to be grieuous to the body to lacke ayre, fire, or any other necessaries most requisite for the conseruation and maintenance thereof in health; considering also how needfull merchandize is, which furnisheth men of all that which is conuenient for theyr liuing, and nouriture, for their clothing, trimming, the satisfying of their delights, and all other thinges conuenient and profitable for them; and that merchandize bringeth the same commodities from diuers quarters, in so great abundance, as by meanes thereof nothing is lacking in any part; and that all things be in euery place (where entercourse of merchandizes is receiued and embraced) generally in such sort, as amity thereby is entered into, and planted to continue, and the inioyers thereof be as men liuing in a golden world: Upon these respects, and other weighty and good considerations, vs hereunto moouing, and chiefly vpon the contemplation of the gracious letters, directed from the right high, right excellent, and right mighty queene Mary, by the grace of God, queene of England, France, &c. in the fauor of her subjects, merchants, the gouernor, consuls, assistants, and comminalty of merchants aduenturers, for discouery of lands, &c.

Know

Know ye therefore, that we of our grace eſpeciall, meere motion, and certaine knowledge, haue giuen and granted, and by theſe preſents, for vs, our heyres and ſucceſſors, doe giue and grant, as much as in vs is and lyeth, vnto Sebaſtian Cabota, gouernour, ſir George Barnes, knight, &c. conſuls; ſir John Greſham, &c. aſſiſtants, and to the comminalty of the aforenamed fellowſhippe, and to theyr ſucceſſours for euer, and to the ſucceſſours of euery of them, theſe articles, grants, immunities, franchiſes, liberties, and priuileges, and euery of them heereafter following, expreſſed and declared, videlicet:

I. Firſt, we for vs, our heyres and ſucceſſours, do, by theſe preſents, giue and grant free licence, faculty, authority, and power, vnto the ſaid gouernour, conſuls, aſſiſtants, and comminalty of the ſaid fellowſhippe, and to their ſucceſſours for euer, that all and ſingular the merchants of the ſame company, their agents, factours, doers of their buſineſſe, atturneys, ſeruants, and miniſters, and euery of them, may at all times heereafter for euer, more ſurely, freely, and ſafely, with theyr ſhippes, merchandizes, goods, and things whatſoeuer, ſaile, come, and enter into all and ſingular our lands, countryes, dominions, cities, townes, villages, caſtles, ports, juriſdictions and deſtraicts by ſea, land, or freſh waters, and there tary, abide, and ſoiourne, and buy, ſell, barter, and change all kinde of merchandizes with all maner of merchants

merchants and people, of whatſoeuer nation, right condition, ſtate or degrees they bee, and with the ſame or other ſhippes, wares, merchandizes, and things, whatſoeuer they be, vnto other empyres, kingdomes, dukedomes, parts, and to any other place or places at theyr pleaſure and liberty, by ſea, land or freſhwaters may depart, and exerciſe all kind of merchandizes in our empyre and dominions, and euery part thereof, freely and quietly, without any reſtraint, impeachment, price, exaction, preſt, ſtraight cuſtome, toll, impoſition, or ſubſidie to be demanded, taxed, or payed, or at any time heereafter to be demanded, taxed, ſet, leuied, or inferred vpon them or any of them, or vpon their goods, ſhippes, wares, merchandizes, and thinges of any of them, ſo that they ſhall not need any other ſafe conduct or licence generall, ne ſpeciall, of vs, our heyres or ſucceſſours, neither ſhall be bound to aſke any ſafe conduct or licence in any of the aforeſaid places ſubiect vnto vs.

II. Item, we giue and grant to the ſayd merchantes, this power and libertie, that they, ne any of them, ne theyr goods, wares, merchandizes or things, ne any part thereof, ſhall be by any meanes, within our dominions, landes, countryes, caſtles, townes, villages, or other place or places of our iuriſdiction, at any time heereafter attached, ſtayed, arreſted, ne diſturbed for any debt, duetie, or other thing, for the which they be not princi-

pall debters or ſureties, ne alſo for any offence or treſpaſſe committed, or that ſhall be committed, but onely for ſuch as they, or any of them, ſhall actually commit, and the ſame offences (if any ſuch happen) ſhalbe by vs onely heard, and determined.

III. Item, we giue and graunt, that the ſaide marchants ſhall and may haue free libertie, power, and authoritie, to name, chooſe, and aſſigne brokers, ſhippers, packers, wayers, meaſurers, wagoners, and all other meete and neceſſarie labourers, for to ſerue them in their feate of marchandizes, and miniſter, and giue vnto them and euery of them a corporall othe, to ſerue them well and truely in their offices, and finding them or any of them doing contrary to his or their othe, may puniſh and diſmiſſe them, and from time to time chooſe, ſweare, and admit other in their place, or places, without contradiction, let, vexation, or diſturbance, either of vs, our heires or ſucceſſours, or of any other our juſtices, officers, miniſters, or ſubiects whatſoeuer.

IV. Item, wee giue and graunt vnto the ſaide marchants and their ſucceſſours, that ſuch perſon as is, or ſhall bee commended vnto vs, our heires or ſucceſſours, by the gouernour, conſuls, and aſſiſtants of the ſaide fellowſhip, reſiant within the citie of London within the realme of Englande, to bee their chiefe factor within this our empire and dominions, may, and ſhall haue full power and

authoritie to gouerne and rule all Engliſhmen, that haue had, or ſhall haue acceſſe, or repaire in or to this ſaide empire and iuriſdictions, or any part thereof, and ſhall and may miniſter vnto them, and euery of them good iuſtice, in all their cauſes, plaints, quarrels, and diſorders betweene them mooued, and to be mooued, and aſſemble, deliberate, conſult, conclude, define, determine, and make ſuch actes, and ordinances, as hee ſo commended with his aſſiſtants ſhall think good and meete, for the good order, gouernement and rule of the ſaide marchants, and all other Engliſhmen repairing to this our ſaide empire and dominions, or any part thereof, and to ſet and leuie vpon all, and euery Engliſhmen, offender or offenders, of ſuch their actes and ordinances made, and to bee made, penalties, and mulcts by fine, or impriſonment.

V. Item, if it happen, that any of the ſaide marchants, or other Engliſhman, as one or more doe rebell gainſt ſuch chiefe factor or factors, or his or their deputies, and will not deſpoſe him, or themſelues to obey them, and euery of them, as ſhall appertaine; if the ſaide rebels or diſobedients doe come, and bee founde in our ſaide empire and iuriſdictions, or any part and place thereof, then wee promiſe and graunt, that all and euery our officers, miniſters, and ſubiects, ſhall effectually ayde and aſſiſt the ſaide chiefe factor, or factors, and their deputies, and for their power ſhall really

worke, to bring ſuch rebell or diſobedient rebels, or diſobedients to due obedience: and to that intent ſhall lende vnto the ſame factor or factors, and their deputies, vpon requeſt therefore to be made, priſons, and inſtruments for puniſhments from time to time.

VI. Item, wee promiſe vnto the ſaide marchants, and their ſucceſſours vpon their requeſt, to exhibite and doe vnto them good, exact, and favourable iuſtice, with expedition in all their cauſes, and that when they or any of them, ſhall have acceſſe, or come to, or before any of our juſtices, for any their plaints mooued, and to be mooued betweene any our ſubiects or other ſtranger, and them, or any of them, that then they ſhall bee firſt, and furthwith heard, as ſoone as the partie which they ſhall finde before our juſtices ſhall bee depeached, which partie being heard furthwith, and aſſoone as may bee, the ſaid engliſh marchants ſhall bee ridde and diſpatched: and if any action ſhall bee moued by or againſt any of the ſaide marchants, being abſent out of our ſaide empire and dominions, then ſuch marchants may ſubſtitute an atturney in all and ſingular his cauſes to bee followed as neede ſhall require, and as ſhall ſeeme to him expedient.

VII. Item, wee graunt, and promiſe to the ſaide marchants, and to their ſucceſſours, that if the ſame marchants or any of them ſhall bee wounded, or (which God forbidde) ſlaine in any

part,

part, or place of our empire, or dominions, then good information thereof giuen, wee and our iuſtices, and other officers, ſhall execute due correction and puniſhment without delaye, according to the exigence of the caſe: ſo that it ſhall bee an example to all other, not to commit the like. And if it ſhall chaunce the factors, ſeruants, or miniſters of the ſayde marchants or any of them, to treſpaſſe or offende, whereby they or any of them ſhall incurre the danger of death or puniſhment, the goods, wares, marchandiſes, and thinges of their maſters, ſhall not therefore be forfaited, confiſcated, ſpoyled, ne ſeiſed by any means, by vs, our heires, or ſucceſſours, or by any our officers, miniſters or ſubiects, but ſhall remaine to their vſe, franke, free, and diſcharged from all puniſhment and loſſe.

VIII. Item, wee graunt that if any of the engliſh nation be arreſted for any debt, hee ſhall not bee layed in priſon, ſo farre, as he can put in ſufficient ſuretie or paune: neither ſhall any ſergeant or officer leade them or any of them to priſon, before he ſhall haue knowen whether the chiefe factor or factors, or their deputies, ſhal be ſureties, or bring in paune for ſuch arreſted: then the officers ſhall releaſe the partie, and ſhall ſet him or them at libertie.

IX. Moreouer, wee giue, graunt, and promiſe to the ſaide marchants, that if any of their ſhippes or other veſſels, ſhall bee ſpoyled, robbed, or damniſied,

nified, in ſayling, anckoring or returning, to, or from our ſayde empires, and dominions, or any part thereof, by any pirats, marchants, or other perſon, whatſoeuer hee or they bee, that then and in ſuch caſe, wee ſhall doe all that in vs is, to cauſe reſtitution, reparation, and ſatisfaction to bee duely made to the ſaide engliſh marchants by our letters and otherwiſe, as ſhall ſtande with our honour, and bee conſonant to equitie and iuſtice.

X. Item, for vs, our heires and ſucceſſours, wee doe promiſe and graunt, to perfourme, maintaine, corroborate, autenticate, and obſerue all and ſingular the aforeſaide liberties, franchiſes, and priuiledges, like as preſently wee firmely doe intende, and will corroborate, autentike, and performe the ſame by all meane and way that wee can, as much as may bee to the commoditie and profite of the ſaide engliſh marchants, and their ſucceſſours for euer.

And to the intent that all and ſinguler the ſaide giftes, graunts and promiſes, may be inuiolably obſerued and perfourmed, wee the ſaide Ivan Vaſſillievitch by the grace of God emperor of Ruſſia, great duke of Novgorode, Moſco, &c. for vs, our heires and ſucceſſours, by our imperiall and lordly worde inſteade of an othe, haue and doe promiſe by theſe preſents, inuiolably to mainteine and obſerue, and cauſe to bee inuiolably obſerued and maintained, all and ſinguler the aforeſaide

ſaide giftes, graunts, and promiſes from time to time, and at all and euery time and times hereafter. And for the more corroboration hereof haue cauſed our ſignet hereunto to be put. Dated in our caſtel of Moſco, the 20 day of Auguſt, in the yeere 7063.

The Charter of the Marchants of Ruſſia, graunted upon the diſcouerie of the ſaide countrey, by king Philip and queene Mary.

Philip and Mary, by the grace of God, king and queene, &c. to all maner of officers, true iurie men, miniſters and ſubiects, and to all other people, as well within this our realme or els where vnder our obeyſance, iuriſdiction, and rule, or otherwiſe vnto whome theſe our letters ſhall bee ſhewed, ſeene, or read, greeting,

Whereas wee be credibly infourmed, that our right truſtie, right faithfull, and welbeloued counſailers, William marques of Wincheſtor, lorde high treaſurer of this our realme of England, Henry earle of Arundel, lord ſteward of our houſholde, Iohn earle of Bedford, lorde keeper of our priuie ſeale, William earle of Pembroke, William lorde Haward of Effingham, lorde high admirall of our ſaide realme of England, &c. haue at their owne aduenture, coaſtes and charges, prouided, rigged,

and tackled certaine ſhippes, pineſſes, and other meete ueſſels, and the ſame furniſhed with all thinges neceſſarie, haue aduaunced and ſet forwarde, for to diſcouer, deſcrie, and finde iles, landes, territories, dominions, and ſeigniories vnknowen, and by our ſubiects before this not commonly by ſea frequented, which by the ſufferance and grace of Almightie God, it ſhall chaunce them ſayling northwardes, northeaſtwardes, and northweſtwardes, or any parts thereof, in that race or courſe which other chriſtian monarches (being with vs in league and amitie) haue not heretofore by ſeas traſiqued, haunted, or frequented, to finde and attaine by their ſaide aduenture, as well for the glorie of God, as for the illuſtrating of our honour, and dignitie royall, in the increaſe of the reuenues of our crowne, and generall wealth of this and other our realmes and dominions, and of our ſubiects of the ſame: and to this intent our ſubiects aboue ſpecified and named, haue moſt humbly beſeeched vs, that our abundant grace, fauour and clemencie, may be graciouſly extended vnto them in this behalfe: whereupon we inclined to the petition of the foreſaid our counſailers, ſubiects and marchants, and willing to animate, aduance, further and nouriſh them in their ſaid godly, honeſt, and good purpoſe, and, as we hope, profitable aduenture, and that they may the more willingly, and readily atchieue the ſame, of our eſpeciall grace, certaine knowledge and meere motion,

motion, haue graunted, and by theſe preſents doe graunt, for vs, our heires and ſucceſſours, vnto our ſaide right truſtie and right faithfull, and right welbeloued counſailers, and the other beforenamed perſons, that they by the name of marchants aduenturers of England, for the diſcouerie of lands, territories, iles, dominions, and ſeigniories vnknowen, and not before that late aduenture or enterpriſe by ſea or navigation, commonly frequented as aforeſaid, ſhalbe from hencefoorth one bodie and perpetuall fellowſhip and communaltie of themſelues, both in deede and in name, and them, by the names of marchants aduenturers for the diſcouerie of landes, territories, iles and ſeigniories vnknowen, and not by the ſeas, and nauigations, before their ſaide late aduenture or enterpriſe by ſea or nauigation commonly frequented, we doe incorporate, name, and declare by theſe preſents, and that the ſame fellowſhip or communaltie from hencefoorth ſhall be, and may haue one gouernour of the ſaid fellowſhip, and communaltie of marchants aduenturers.

And in conſideration that one Sebaſtian Cabota hath bene the chiefeſt ſetter foorth of this iourney or voyage, therefore we make, ordeine, and conſtitute him the ſaid Sebaſtian to be the firſt and preſent gouernour of the ſame fellowſhip and communaltie, by theſe preſents. To haue and enioy the ſaid office of gouernour, to him the ſaid Sebaſtian

Sebaſtian Cabota during his natural life, without amouing or dimiſſing from the ſame roome.

And furthermore, we graunt vnto the ſame fellowſhip and communaltie and their ſucceſſours, that they the ſaide fellowſhip and communaltie, and their ſucceſſors after the deceaſe of the ſaide Sebaſtian Cabota, ſhall, and may freely and lawfully in places conuenient, and honeſt, aſſemble themſelues together, or ſo many of them as will, or can aſſemble together, as well within our citie of London, or elſewhere, as it ſhall pleaſe them in ſuch ſort and maner, as other worſhipfull corporations of our ſaide citie haue vſed to aſſemble, and there yeerely name, elect and chooſe one gouernour or two, of themſelues, and their liberties, and alſo as well yeerely during the naturall life of the ſaid Sebaſtian Cabota nowe gouernour, as alſo at the election of ſuch ſaid gouernour or gouernours before his deceaſe, to chooſe, name and appoint eight and twentie of the moſt ſad, diſcreete, and honeſt perſons of the ſaide fellowſhip, and communaltie of marchant aduenturers, as is aboue ſpecified, and four of the moſt expert and ſkilfull perſons of the ſame twentie eight, to be named and called conſuls, and twentie four of the reſidue, to be named and called aſſiſtants to the ſaide gouernour or gouernours, and conſuls for the time being, which ſhal remaine and ſtand in their authorities for one whole

whole yeere then next following. And if it ſhall fortune the ſaid gouernour, conſuls, and aſſiſtants, or any of them ſo to be elected, and choſen as is aforeſaide, to die within the yeere after his or their election, that then and ſo often, it ſhall and may be lawfull to and for the ſaide fellowſhip, and communaltie, to elect and chuſe of themſelues other gouernour or gouernours, conſuls and aſſiſtants, in the place and ſteade of ſuch as ſo ſhall happen to die, to ſerue out the ſame yeere.

And further we doe make, ordeine, and conſtitute, George Barnes knight and alderman of our citie of London, William Garret alderman of our ſaide citie, Anthony Huſie, and Iohn Suthcot, to be the firſt and preſent four conſuls of the ſaide felowſhip and communaltie by theſe preſents, ſo haue and enioy the ſaid offices of conſuls to them the ſaid George Barnes, William Garret, Anthony Huſie, and Iohn Suthcot, for terme of one whole yeere next after the date of theſe our letters patents: and wee doe likewiſe, make, ordeine and conſtitute ſir Iohn Greſham knight, ſir Andrew Iudde knight, ſir Thomas White knight, ſir Iohn Yorke knight, Thomas Offley the elder, Thomas Lodge, Henry Herdſon, Iohn Hopkins, William Watſon, William Clifton, Richard Pointer, Richard Chamberlaine, William Mallorie, Thomas Pallie the elder, William Allen, Henry Becher, Ieffrey Walkenden, Richard Fowles, Rowland

Rowland Heyward, George Eaton, Iohn Ellot, Iohn Sparke, Blaſe Sanders, and Miles Mording, to be the firſt and preſent twentie four aſſiſtants to the ſaid gouernour or gouernours, and conſuls, and to the ſaide felowſhip and communaltie by theſe preſents, to haue and enioy the ſaid offices of aſſiſtants to them for terme of one whole yeere, next after the date of theſe our letters patents.

And further, we for vs, our heires and ſucceſſours, as much as in vs is, will and graunt by theſe preſents vnto the ſaid gouernour, conſuls, aſſiſtants, felowſhip and company of marchants aduenturers aforeſaid, and to their ſucceſſours, that the ſaid gouernour or gouernours, four conſuls, and twentie four aſſiſtants, that now by theſe patents are nominated and appointed, or that hereafter by the ſaid felowſhip, and communaltie of marchants aduenturers or the more part of them, which ſhalbe then preſent, ſo from time to time to be choſen, ſo that there be fifteen at the leaſt, wholy agreed thereof, the ſaid gouernour or gouerners, or one of them, and two of the ſaide conſuls ſhalbe there, and twelve of the reſidue of the ſaid nomber of fifteen ſhalbe of the ſaid aſſiſtants, and in the abſence of ſuch gouernour, that then three of the ſaide conſuls, and twelve of the ſaide aſſiſtants at the leaſt for the time being, ſhal and may haue, vſe, and exerciſe ful power and authoritie, to rule and gouerne all and ſinguler the marchants of the ſaid fellowſhip and communaltie,

and

and to execute, and do full and ſpeedie iuſtice, to them, and euery of them, in all their cauſes, differences, variances, controuerſies, quarrels, and complaints, within any our realmes, dominions and iuriſdictions onely mooued, and to be mooued touching their marchandiſe, trafiques, and occupiers aforeſaide, or the good order or rule of them or any of them.

Alſo wee for vs, our heires and ſucceſſors, ſo much as in vs is, doe likewiſe by theſe preſents graunt, that the ſaid gouernour, conſuls, aſſiſtants, fellowſhip and communaltie, and their ſucceſſours, ſhall and may haue perpetuall ſucceſſion, and a common ſeale which ſhall perpetually ſerue for the affaires and buſineſſe of the ſaide fellowſhip and communaltie. And that they and their ſucceſſours, ſhall and may be for euer able perſons, and capax in the lawe, for to purchaſe and poſſeſſe in fee and perpetuitie, and for terme of life, or liues, or for terme of yeere or otherwiſe, landes, tenements, rentes, reuerſions, and other poſſeſſions, and hereditaments, whatſoeuer they bee, by the name of the gouernour, conſuls, aſſiſtants, fellowſhip and communaltie of the marchants aduenturers by ſeas and nauigations, for the diſcouerie of landes, territories, iles, dominions and ſeigniories vnknowen, and before the ſaide laſt aduenture, or enterpriſe by ſeas not frequented, as before is ſpecified, and by the ſame names, ſhal and may lawfully alien, graunt, lett and ſett the ſame,

ſame, or any part thereof to any perſon or perſons, able in the lawe to take and receiue the ſame. So that they doe not graunt nor alien the ſame, or any part thereof into mortmaine, without ſpeciall licence of vs, our heires or ſucceſſours, firſt had and obtained.

Alſo, wee for vs, our heires and ſucceſſours haue graunted, and by theſe preſents doe graunt vnto the ſaide gouernours, conſuls, aſſiſtants, fellowſhip, and communaltie of the ſaide marchants, and to their ſucceſſours, that they and their ſucceſſours, ſhall, and may lawfully purchaſe vnto them and their ſucceſſors for euer, landes, tenements and hereditaments whatſoeuer, of the cleare yeerely value of three ſcore ſix pounds, thirteene ſhillings and foure pence of lawfull money of Englande and not aboue, as well of ſuch landes, tenements, and hereditaments, as bee holden, or ſhall be holden of vs, our heires or ſucceſſours, as of any other perſon or perſons, the ſtatutes prouided againſt alienations into mortmaine, or any of them, or any article or clauſe in them, or any of them contained, or any other lawe, cuſtome, ſtatute, or prouiſion to the contrary in any wiſe notwithſtanding. And that they by the name of the gouernour, conſuls, aſſiſtants, fellowſhip and communaltie of marchants aduenturers, for the diſcouerie of landes, territories, iles, dominions, and ſeigniories vnknowen by the ſeas and nauigations, and not before the ſaide late aduenture or enterpriſe

enterpriſe by ſeas frequented as aforeſaide, ſhall and may bee able in the lawe, to impleade, and be impleaded, to anſwere, and to be anſwered, to defende, and to bee defended before whatſoeuer judge or juſtice, temporall or ſpirituall, or other perſons whatſoeuer, in whatſoeuer court, or courtes, and in all actions perſonall, reall, and mixt, and in euery of them, and in all plaintes of nouel diſſeiſon, and alſo in all plaintes, ſuites, quarrels, affaires, buſineſſes and demaundes whatſoeuer they bee, touching and concerning the ſaide fellowſhippe and communaltie, and the affaires and buſineſſe of the ſame onely, in as ample maner and forme, as any other corporation of this our realme may doe.

Moreouer, wee for vs, our heires and ſucceſſours, haue giuen and graunted, and by theſe preſents doe giue and graunt vnto the ſaide gouernour, conſuls, aſſiſtants, fellowſhippe, and communaltie of marchants aduenturers aforeſaide, and to their ſucceſſours, that the ſaide gouernour, or gouernours, conſuls and aſſiſtants, and their ſucceſſours, in maner, forme and nomber afore rehearſed, ſhall haue full power and authoritie from time to time hereafter, to make, ordeine, eſtabliſh and erect all ſuch ſtatutes, actes and ordinances, for the gouernement, good condition, and lawdable rule of the ſaid fellowſhippe and communaltie of marchants aduenturers aforeſaide, as to them ſhalbe thought good, meete, conue-

nient

nient and neceſſarie, and alſo to admitte vnto the ſaide corporation and fellowſhippe to be free of the ſame, ſuch and as many perſons, as to them ſhall bee thought good, meete, conuenient, and neceſſarie. And that euery ſuch perſon or perſons, as ſhall fortune hereafter to bee admitted into the ſaide fellowſhippe, communaltie and corporation, ſhall from the time of his or their admittance, bee free of the ſame: and alſo wee will, and by theſe preſents graunt for vs, our heires and ſucceſſours, vnto the ſaide gouernours, conſuls, aſſiſtants, fellowſhip, communaltie, of marchant aduenturers aforeſaide, and to their ſucceſſours, that the gouernour, or gouernours, conſuls and aſſiſtants of the ſame, in maner, forme, and nomber afore-rehearſed, and their ſucceſſours, for the time being, ſhall, and may haue full power and authoritie by theſe preſents from time to time, as to them ſhall ſeeme good, to limit, ſett, ordeine, and make, mulcts and penalties by fines, forfeitures, and impriſonments, or any of them, vpon any offender of the ſaide fellowſhippe and communaltie, for any offence touching the ſame fellowſhip and communaltie, and alſo that all acts and ordinances by them or their ſucceſſours to bee made, which time ſhall think not neceſſarie or preiudiciall to the ſaid fellowſhip or communaltie, at all times to reuoke, breake, fruſtrate, anihilate, repeale and diſſolue at their pleaſure and libertie. And further, wee will that if any of the ſaide fellowſhip

lowſhip and communaltie ſhalbe founde contrarious, rebellious, or diſobedient to the ſaide gouernour or gouernours, conſuls, and the ſaide aſſiſtants for the time being, or to any ſtatutes, actes or ordinances, by them made or to bee made, that then the ſaide gouernour or gouernours, conſuls, and the ſaide aſſiſtants, in maner, forme, and nomber aboue ſpecified, for the time being, ſhall and may by vertue of theſe preſents, mulct, and puniſh euery ſuch offender or offenders, as the qualitie of the offence requireth, according to their good diſcretions.

And further, we will that none of the ſaide offender or offenders, ſhall decline from the power of the ſaide gouernour or gouernours, conſuls and aſſiſtants, in maner, forme, and nomber aboue-ſaide for the time being: ſo alwayes that the ſaide acts, ſtatutes and ordinances doe onely touch and concerne the ſaide gouernour or gouernours, conſuls, aſſiſtants, and the ſaide fellowſhippe and communaltie of our before named marchants aduenturers, or the men of the ſame fellowſhip and communaltie, and none other; and ſo alwayes, that ſuch acts, ſtatutes, and ordinances, bee not againſt our prerogatiue, lawes, ſtatutes, and cuſtomes of our realmes and dominions, nor contrary to the ſeuerall duetie of any our ſubiects, towardes vs, our heires and ſucceſſours, nor contrary to any compacts, treaties, or leagues, by vs or any our progenitours, heretofore had or made, or hereafter by vs, our heires and ſucceſſours to bee made, to

or with any foreine prince or potentate, nor alſo to the prejudice of the corporation of the maior, communalties and citizens of our citie of London, nor to the preiudice of any perſon or perſons, bodie politique, or corporate, or incorporate, iuſtly pretending, clayming or hauing any liberties, franchiſes, priuiledges, rightes or preheminences, by vertue or pretext of any graunt, gift, or letters patents, by vs, or any our progenitours, heretofore giuen, graunted, or made.

Moreouer, we for vs, our heires, and ſucceſſours, will, and by theſe preſents, doe graunt vnto the ſaid gouernours, conſuls, aſſiſtants, felowſhip and communaltie of our marchants aforeſaid, that their ſaid gouernour or gouernours, conſuls and aſſiſtants, and their ſucceſſours for the time being, in maner, forme, and nomber aboue rehearſed, ſhall haue ful power and authoritie to aſſigne, conſtitute and ordaine one officer, or diuers officers as well within our aforeſaide citie of London, as alſo in any other place or places of this our realme of England, or elſwhere within our dominions, which officer or officers, wee will to be named and called by the name of ſeriant or ſeriants to the fellowſhip or communaltie of the ſaid marchants, and that the ſame ſeriant or ſeriants, ſhall and may haue full power and authoritie by theſe preſents, to take, leuie and gather all maner fines, forfeitures, penalties and mulcts of euery perſon and perſons, of the ſaide fellowſhippe

ſhippe and communaltie conuict, and that ſhall be conuicted, vpon or for breaking of any ſtatutes, acts, ordinances, to be made by the ſaide gouernour or gouernours, conſuls and aſſiſtants for the time being.

And further, wee will and alſo graunt for vs, our heires and ſucceſſours, that the ſaide officer or officers, ſhall haue further power and authoritie for the default of payment, or for diſobedience in this behalfe (if neede bee) to ſet handes, and arreſt, as well the body and bodies, as the goods and chattels of ſuch offender, and offenders, and tranſgreſſers, in euery place and places not franchiſed: and if it ſhall fortune any ſuch offender or offenders, their goods and chattels or any part thereof, to bee in any citie, borrowe, towne incorporate, or other place franchiſed or priuiledged, where the ſaide officer or officers, may not lawfully intromit or intermeddle, that then the maior, ſhiriffes, bayliffes, and other head officers, or miniſters, within euery ſuch citie, borowe, towne incorporate, or place or places franchiſed, vpon a precept to them, or any of them, to be directed from the gouernour or gouernours, conſuls and aſſiſtants of the ſaide fellowſhip, in nomber and forme aforeſaid, vnder the common ſeale of the ſaid felowſhip and communaltie for the time being, ſhall and may attach and arreſt the body or bodies of ſuch offender or offenders, as alſo take, and ſeiſe the goods and chattels of

all and euery ſuch offender and offenders, being within any ſuch place or places franchiſed, and the ſame bodie and bodies, goods and chattels of all and euery ſuch offender and offenders, being within any ſuch place or places franchiſed, and euery part thereof ſo attached and ſeazed, ſhall according to the tenor and purport of the ſaid precept, returne, and deliuer vnto the ſaide officer or officers of the aforeſaide fellowſhippe and communaltie.

And further, we wil and graunt for vs, our heires and ſucceſſours, by theſe preſents, that all and euery ſuch maior, ſhiriffe, bayliffe, or other head officers or miniſters, of any citie, borowe, towne incorporate, or other places franchiſed, ſhall not bee impeached, moleſted, vexed, or ſued in any our court or courtes, for executing or putting in execution of any of the ſaid precept or precepts.

And furthermore, wee of our ample and abundant grace, meere motion, and certaine knowledge, for vs, our heires and ſucceſſours, as much as in vs is, haue giuen and graunted, and by theſe preſents doe giue and graunt, vnto the ſaid gouernour, conſuls, aſſiſtants, fellowſhippe, and comminaltie of marchants aduenturers, and to their ſucceſſours, and to the factor, and factors, aſſigne and aſſignees, of euery of them, full and free authority, libertie, facultie and licence, and power to ſaile to all portes, regions, dominions, territories,

territories, landes, iles, iſlands, and coaſtes of the ſea, whereſoeuer before their late aduenture or enterpriſe, vnknowen, or by our marchants and ſubiects by the ſeas not heretofore commonly frequented, vnder our banner, ſtanderd, flags, and enſignes, with their ſhippe, ſhippes, barkes, pinneſſes, and all other veſſels of whatſoeuer portage, bulke, quantitie or qualitie they may be, and with any marriners, and men as they will leade with them in ſuch ſhippe or ſhippes, or other veſſels, at their owne and proper coſtes and expences, for to trafique, deſcrie, diſcouer and finde, whatſoeuer ile, iſlands, countries, regions, prouinces, creekes, armes of the ſea, riuers and ſtreames, as wel of gentile, as of any other emperour, king, prince, gouernour or lord whatſoeuer he or they ſhalbe, and in whatſoeuer part of the world they be ſituated, being before the ſaide aduenture or enterpriſe vnknowen, and by our marchants and ſubiects not commonly frequented: and to enter and land in the ſame, without any maner of denying, paine, penaltie or forfeiture to bee had or taken by any our lawes, cuſtomes or ſtatutes to our vſe, or to the vſe of our heires or ſucceſſors for the ſame.

And we haue alſo graunted, and by theſe preſents, for vs, our heires and ſucceſſors, doe graunt vnto the ſaide gouernours, conſuls, aſſiſtants, fellowſhippe and comminaltie, and to their ſucceſſours, and to their factors and aſſignes, and to

euery of them, licence for to reare, plant, erect, and faſten our banners, ſtanderds, flags, and enſignes, in whatſoeuer citie, towne, village, caſtle, ile, or maine lande, which ſhalbe by them newly found, without any the penalties, forfeitures, or dangers aforeſaide, and that the ſaid fellowſhip and comminaltie, and their ſucceſſors, factors, and aſſignes and euery of them, ſhall and may ſubdue, poſſeſſe and occupie, all maner cities, townes, iles, and maine landes of infidelitie, which is or ſhall bee by them, or any of them newly founde or deſcried, as our vaſſals and ſubiects, and for to acquire and get the dominion, title, and iuriſdiction of the ſame cities, townes, caſtles, villages, iſles, and maine landes, which ſhall bee by them, or any of them newly diſcouered or founde vnto vs, our heires and ſucceſſours for euer.

And furthermore, whereas by the voyage of our ſubiects in this laſt yeere [anno 1554.] attempted by nauigation, towardes the diſcouerie and diſcloſure of vnknowen places, reahnes, iſlandes, and dominions by the ſeas not frequented, it hath pleaſed Almighty God to cauſe one of the three ſhippes by them firſt ſet foorth for the voyage, and purpoſe abouementioned, named the Edward Bonauenture, to arriue, abide, and winter within the empire and dominions of the high and mightie prince our couſin and brother, lorde Iohn Baſilivitch emperour of all Ruſſia,

Ruſſia, Vladimirſkie, great duke of Muſcovie, &c. Who, of his clemencie, for our loue and zeale, did not onely admitte the captaine, and marchants our ſubiects into his protection, and princely preſence, but alſo receiued and intertained them very gratiouſly, and honourably, graunting vnto them by his letters addreſſed vnto vs, franke acceſſe into all his ſeigniories and dominions, with licence freely to trafique in and out with all his ſubiects in all kinde of marchandiſe, with diuers other gratious priuiledges, liberties and immunities ſpecified in his ſaide letters vnder his ſignet: Know yee therefore that wee of our further royall fauour and munificence, of our meere motion, certaine knowledge, and ſpeciall grace, for vs, our heires, and ſucceſſours, haue giuen and graunted, and by theſe preſents doe giue and graunt vnto the ſame gouernour, conſuls, aſſiſtants, fellowſhippe, and comminaltie aboue named, and to their ſucceſſours, as much as in vs is, that all the maine landes, iles, portes, hauens, creekes, and riuers of the ſaid mightie emperour of all Ruſſia, and great duke of Moſco, &c. and all and ſinguler other landes, dominions, territories, iles, portes, hauens, creekes, riuers, armes of the ſea, of all and other emperour, king, prince, rulers and gouerners, whatſoeuer he or they be before the ſaide late aduenture or enterpriſe not knowen, or by our foreſaide marchants and ſubiects by the ſeas, not commonly frequented,

nor by any part nor parcel thereof lying northwardes, northeaſtwards, or northweſtwards, as is aforeſaid, by ſea ſhal not be uiſited, frequented, nor haunted by any our ſubiects, other then of the ſaid company and felowſhip, and their ſucceſſors without expreſſe licence, agreement, and conſent of the gouernour, conſuls, and aſſiſtants of the ſaid fellowſhip, and communaltie aboue named, or the more part of them, in manner and number aforeſaid, for the time being, vpon paine of forfeiture, and loſſe, as well of the ſhippe, and ſhippes, with the appertenances, as alſo of all the goods, marchandize, and things whatſoeuer they be, of thoſe our ſubiects, not being of the ſaid fellowſhippe, and communaltie, which ſhall attempt or preſume to ſaile to any of thoſe places, which be, or ſhall hereafter happen to be founde, and trafiked vnto, the one halfe of the ſame forfeiture to be to the vſe of vs, our heires, and ſucceſſours, and the other halfe to be to the vſe of the ſaide fellowſhippe, and communaltie. And if it ſhall fortune, any ſtranger, or ſtrangers, for to attempt to hurt, hinder, or endamage the ſame marchants, their factors, deputies, or aſſignes, or any of them, in ſailing, going, or returning at any time in the ſaide aduenture, or for to ſaile or trade to or from any thoſe places, lands, or coaſtes, which by the ſaide marchants, their factors, deputies, and aſſignes haue bene, or ſhall be deſcried, diſcouered, and found, or frequented, as well within the coaſtes

coaſtes and limits of gentilitie, as within the dominions and ſeigniories of the ſaid mightie emperour and duke, and of all, and euery other emperour, king, prince, ruler, and gouernour whatſoeuer he or they be, before the ſaide late aduenture or enterpriſe not knowen by any our ſaid marchants, and ſubiects, by the ſeas not commonly frequented, and lying northwards, northweſtwards, or northeaſtwards as aforeſaid, then we will, and grant, and by theſe preſents doe licence, and authorize for vs, our heires, and ſucceſſors, the ſaid marchants, their factors, deputies, and aſſignes, and euery of them, to doe their beſt in their defenſe, to reſiſt the ſame their enterpriſe, and attempts. Willing therefore, and ſtraightly commanding, and charging, all and ſingular our officers, maiors, ſherifes, eſcheators, conſtables, bailifs, and all, and ſingular other our miniſters, and liege men, and ſubiects whatſoeuer, to be aiding, fauouring, helping, and aſſiſting vnto the ſaid gouernour, or gouernours, conſuls, aſſiſtants, fellowſhip, and communaltie, and to their ſucceſſors, and deputies, factors, ſeruants, and aſſignes, and to the deputies, factors, and aſſignes of euery of them, in executing and enioying the premiſſes, as wel on land, as in the ſea, from time to time, and at all times, when you, or any of you, ſhall be thereunto required. In witnes whereof, &c.

Apud Weſtmonaſterium, 6 die Feb. annis regnorum noſtrorum, primo & ſecundo. Anno 1555.

Chancellor

Chancellor returned to England the very ſame year with four ſhips, the lading whereof amounted in value to twenty-ſix thouſand pounds ſterling; bringing with him a ruſſian ambaſſador, having in his ſuite ſixteen other ruſſian noblemen.—Three of theſe ſhips went to the bottom; in one of which Chancellor himſelf loſt his life, but the ruſſian ambaſſador was ſaved and arrived happily in London, where he received an honourable reception both from the court and the Ruſſia-company.

The company now began to think it high time to reſume their project for the diſcovery of a northern paſſage to India, being thus aſſured not only of the permiſſion but even of the encouragement and aſſiſtance of the ruſſian government.

As the inſtructions that were delivered on ſetting out upon the third voyage are curious in many reſpects, it will be proper to preſerve them here.

Certaine inſtructions deliuered in the third voyage, anno 1556. for Ruſſia, to euery purſer, and the reſt of the ſeruants, taken for the voyage, which may ſerue as good and neceſſary directions to all other like aduenturers.

I. Firſt, you ſhall before the ſhippe doth begin to lade, goe aboord, and ſhall there take, and write one inuentorie, by the aduiſe of the maſter,

maſter, or of ſome other principall officer there aboord, of all the tackle, apparel, cables, ankers, ordinance, chambers, ſhot, powder, artillerie, and of all other neceſſaries whatſoeuer doth belong to the ſaid ſhip: and the ſame iuſtly taken, you ſhall write in a booke, making the ſaid maſter, or ſuch officer priuie of that which you haue ſo written, ſo that the ſame may not be denied, when they ſhall call accompt thereof: that done, you ſhall write a copie of the ſame, with your owne hand, which you ſhall deliuer before the ſhippe ſhall depart for the voyage to the companies booke keeper here to be kept to their behalfe, to the ende that they may be iuſtly anſwered the ſame, when time ſhall require: and this order to be ſeene and kept euery voyage orderly, by the purſers of the companies owne ſhippe, in any wiſe.

II. Alſo when the ſhippe beginneth to lade, you ſhall be ready a boord with your booke, to enter ſuch goods as ſhall be brought a boord, to be laden for the companie, packed or vnpacked, taking the markes and numbers of euery packe, fardell, truſſe or packet, corouoya, cheſt, fatte, butt, pipe, puncheon, whole barrell, halfe barrell, fyrkin, or other caſke, maunde, or baſkett, or any other thing, which may, or ſhall be packed by any other manner of waies or deuiſe. And firſt, all ſuch packes, or truſſes, &c. as ſhal be brought aboord to be laden, not marked by the companies marke, you ſhall doe the beſt to let that the ſame be

be not laden, and to inquire diligently to know the owners thereof, if you can, and what commoditie the ſame is, that is ſoe brought aboord to be laden: if you can not know the owners of ſuch goods, learne what you can thereof, as wel making a note in your booke, as alſo to ſend or bring worde thereof to the agent, and to ſome one of the foure marchants with him adioyned, ſo ſpeedily as you can, if it be here laden, or to be laden in this riuer, being not marked with the companies marke, as is aforeſaid: and when the ſaid ſhippe hath receaued in all that the companies agent will haue laden, you ſhal make a iuſt copie of that which is laden, reciting the parcels, the markes and numbers of euery thing plainly, which you ſhal likewiſe deliuer to the ſayd booke keeper to the vſe aforeſaid.

III. Alſo when the ſhip is ready to depart, you ſhall come for your cockets and letters to the agent, and ſhall ſhew him all ſuch letters as you haue receiued of any perſon or perſons priuately or openly, to be deliuered to any perſon or perſons in Ruſſia or elſewhere, and alſo to declare if you know any other that ſhall paſſe in the ſhip either maſter or mariner that hath receiued any letters to be priuily deliuered to any there, directed from any perſon or perſons, other then from the agent here to the agent there: which letters ſo by you receiued, you ſhall not cary with you, without you be licenced ſo to doe by the agent here, and ſome of

of the foure merchants, as is aforesayd: and such others as doe passe, hauing receiued any priuie letters to be deliuered, you shall all that in you lieth, let the deliuerie of them at your arriuing in Russia: and also if you haue or doe receiue, or shall know any other that doth or hath receiued any goods or readie money to bee imploied in Russia, or to bee deliuered there to any person or persons from any person or persons, other then such as be the companies goods, and that vnder their marke, you shall before the shippe doeth depart, declare the same truely to the said agent, and to some of the other merchants to him adioyned, as it is before declared.

IV. Also when the ship is ready to depart, and hath the master and the whole company aboord, you shall diligently foresee and take heede, that there passe not any priuie person or persons, other then such as be authorized to passe in the said ship, without the licence and warrant of one of the gouernours and of the assistants, for the same his passage, to be first shewed. And if there bee any such person or persons that is to passe and will passe without shewing the same warrant, you shall let the passage of any such to the vttermost of your power: and for that there may no such priuy person passe vnder the cloke and colour of some mariner, you shall vpon the waying of your ships anker, call the master and the mariners within boord by their names and that by your bookes,

bookes, to the ende that you may ſee that you haue neither more or leſſe, but iuſt the number for the voyage.

V. Alſo you muſt haue in remembraunce, that if it ſhall chaunce the ſhip to bee put into any harbour in this coaſt by contrary windes or otherwiſe in making the voyage, to ſend word thereof from time to time as the caſe ſhall require, by your letters in this maner: To maſter I. B. agent for the company of the New trades in S. in London. If you doe hier any to bring your letters, write that which he muſt haue for the portage. And for your better knowledge and learning, you ſhall do very well to keepe a daily note of the voiage both outwards and homewards.

VI. And principally ſee that you forget not daily in all the voiage both morning and euening, to call the company within boord to prayer, in which doing you ſhall pleaſe God, and the voiage wil haue the better ſucceſſe thereby, and the company proſper the better.

VII. Alſo in calme weather and at other times when you ſhall fortune to come to anker in the ſeas during the voiage, you ſhall for the companies profit, and for good huſbanding of the victuals aboord, call vpon the boateſwaine and other of the company to vſe ſuch hookes and other engines as they haue aboord to take fiſh with, that ſuch fiſh ſo taken may bee eaten for the cauſe aforeſayd: and if there bee no ſuch engines aboord,

aboord, then to prouide ſome before you goe from hence.

VIII. And when God ſhall ſend you in ſafetie into the baie of St. Nicholas at an anker, you ſhall goe a ſhore with the firſt boate that ſhall depart from the ſhip, taking with you ſuch letters as you haue to deliuer to the agent there: and if he bee not there at your comming a land, then ſend the companies letters to Colmogro [Kholmogor] to him by ſome ſure mariner or otherwiſe, as the maſter and you ſhal thinke beſt: but goe not yourſelfe at any hand, nor yet from aboord the ſhip, vnleſſe it be a ſhore to treate with the agent for the lading of the ſhip that you be appointed in, which you ſhall applie diligently to haue done ſo ſpeedily as may bee. And for the diſcharging of the goods therein in the baie, to be caried from thence, ſee that you doe looke well to the vnlading thereof, that there bee none other goods ſent a ſhore then the companies, and according to the notes entered in your booke as aforeſayd: if there bee, enquire diligently for whom they bee, and what goods they be, noting who is the receiuer of the ſayd goods, in ſuch ſort that the company may haue the true knowledge thereof at your comming home.

IX. Alſo there a ſhoare, and likewiſe aboord, you ſhall ſpie, and ſearch as ſecretly as you may, to learne and knowe what bargaining, buying, and ſelling there is, with the maſter, and the mariners

riners of the ſhippe, and the Ruſſes, or with the companies ſeruants there: and that which you ſhall perceaue and learne, you ſhall keepe a note thereof in your booke, ſecretly to your ſelfe; which you ſhall open, and diſcloſe at your comming home, to the gouernours, and the aſſiſtants, in ſuch ſort, as the truth of their ſecret trades, and occupyings may be reuealed and knowen. You ſhall neede alwaies to haue Argos eies, to ſpie their ſecret packing and conuayance, as well on land, as aboord the ſhippe, of and for ſuch furres, and other commodities, as yeerely they doe vſe to buy, packe, and conuay hither. If you will be vigilant, and ſecrete in this article, you can not miſſe to ſpie their priuie packing one with another, either on ſhoare, or aboord the ſhippe: worke herein wiſely, and you ſhall deſerue great thanks of the whole companie.

X. Alſo at the lading againe of the ſhippe, you ſhall continue and abide aboord, to the ende that you may note and write in your booke, all ſuch goods and marchandize, as ſhall be brought and laden, which you ſhall orderly note in all ſortes as heretofore, as in the ſecond article partly it is touched: and in any wiſe, put the maſter and the companie in remembrance, to looke and foreſee ſubſtantially to the roomaging of the ſhippe, by faire meanes or threats, as you ſhall ſee and thinke will ſerue for the beſt.

XI. Thus when the ſhippe is fully laden againe, and

and all things aboord in good order, and that you doe fortune to goe a ſhoare to the agent for your letters, and diſpatch away: you ſhal demand whether all the goods be laden that were brought thither, and to know the truth thereof, you ſhall repaire to the companies ſtorehouſe there, at S. Nicholas, to ſee if there be any goods left, in the ſaid ſtorehouſe; if there be, you ſhall demand why they be not laden, and to note what kind of goods they be, that be ſo left: and ſeeing any of the ſhippes there, not fully laden, you ſhall put the agent in remembrance to lade thoſe goods ſo left, if any ſuch be to be laden, as is aforeſaide. And thus God ſending you a faire wind, to make ſpeede and away.

XII. Finally, when God ſhall ſende you to arriue againe vpon this coaſt in ſafetie, either at Harewhich, or els where, goe not you a land, if you may poſſible, to the ende, that when you be gone a ſhoare, there may no goods be ſent priuily aſhoare to be ſolde, or els to be ſolde aboord the ſhippe, in your abſence, but keepe you ſtill aboord, if you can by any meanes, for the cauſes aforeſaid, and write the companie a letter from the ſhippe of your good arriual, which you may conuey to them by land, by ſome boy or marriner of the ſhippe, or otherwiſe as you ſhall thinke beſt: and likewiſe when God ſhall ſende you and the ſhippe, into the riuer here, doe not in any wiſe depart out of the ſhippe that you be

in vntill the companie doe ſend ſome other aboord the ſhippe, in your ſteede and place, to keepe the ſaid ſhippe in your abſence.

This time likewiſe, however, the company were diſappointed in their expectations. Captain Stephen Burrowe, who had the charge of the expedition, reached only to the ſtraights of Vaigat, where, finding his paſſage choaked by the ice, he was under the neceſſity of returning. —Deterred by the failure of theſe attempts, the Ruſſia company at length conceived the deſign of tranſporting the commodities of the Levant over the Caſpian acroſs Ruſſia. Accordingly, in the year 1557, on fitting out the fourth expedition to St. Nicholas, they ſent with it an active and enterpriſing man named Anthony Jenkinſon, for the expreſs purpoſe of obtaining permiſſion to this effect.

By the addreſs and exertions of Jenkinſon, the company, in 1567, received another patent from Ivan Vaſſilievitch II. by which all the privileges granted to them in the former were confirmed and in ſeveral particulars enlarged. It is couched in the following terms:

"One onely ſtrengthener of all things, and God without beginning, which was before the world, the Father, the Sonne, and the Holy Ghoſt, our onely God, in Trinitie, and maker of all

all things, whom we worſhip in all things, and in all places, the doer and fulfiller of all things, which is the perfect knowledge-giuer of the true God, our Lord Jeſus Chriſt, with the comforter the Holy Spirit, and thou which art the ſtrengthener of our faith, keepe vs together, and giue vs health to preſerue our kingdome, thou giuer of all good fruites, and helper of all chriſtian beleeuers.

We great lord by the grace of God, and great duke Ivan Vaſſillievitch, of all Ruſſia, Vladimir, Moſco, Novgorod, Kazan, Aſtrakhan, Pſcove, Smolenſk, Tver, Ugoria, Viatka, Bulgar, Sybir and others, emperor, and great duke of Novgorod of the lower land, of Chernigof, Riazan, Polotſk, Roſtove, Yaroſlave, Bielozero, Udor, Obdor, Kondia, and lord of many other lands, and of all the north parts, commander and lord of Liffeland.

Whereas our ſiſter queene Elizabeth, by the grace of God, queene of England, France and Ireland, hath written to us her letters, that we would grant her merchants, William Garrard, William Cheſter, Rowland Heyward, Lawrence Huſſie, John March, Anthony Jenkinſon, William Rowlie, and their companie of England, to come in ſhips into this kingdom, and thoſe merchants, William Garrard and his companie, haue required of vs that we would grant and licence them to come into our countrie of Dvina,

with all kind of wares at will, to our citie of Moſco, and to all our caſtles in our kingdoms, we for our ſiſters ſake Elizabeth, by the grace of God, queene of England, France and Ireland, haue licenced her merchants, William Garrard and his company, to paſſe in ſhippes to our kingdome of Colmogor, and to the land of Dvina, and to all other our inheritances in the north parts, with all kind of wares to our citie of Moſco, and to all caſtles and townes in our kingdom. And ſir William Garrard and his company deſired of vs, that we would grant them licence to paſſe to our inheritance of Kazan and Aſtrakhan, and into our inheritance of Novgorod the great, and to our inheritance of Liffeland to Narue and Dorpe, and to other our caſtles and townes of Liffeland, with all kind of wares, and the trade to be without cuſtome, which requeſt we haue granted to ſir William Garrard and his company, and haue giuen them licence to paſſe to our inheritance of Kazan and Aſtrakhan, and Novgorod the great, and into our inheritance of Liffeland, Narue and Dorpe, and other places of our inheritance in Liffeland with all kind of wares, to buy, barter and ſell at will, without cuſtome: and what wares ſoeuer they bring out of England, or out of any other country, needfull or neceſſary, that they ſhall bring all thoſe wares needfull or neceſſary to our treaſury, and thoſe wares there to be opened, and then to take

out

out of the ſame, ſuch wares as ſhall be needfull for our treaſury, and the reſt being deliuered againe, to ſel and barter at their pleaſure; and to ſel none of the fine wares before they be ſeene by our chancelers, except ſorting clothes, and other wares not meete for our treaſurie: and when our chancelor will ſend our treaſure out of our treaſurie with them, they ſhall take it with them, and to ſell and barter it for wares meete for our treaſurie, and bring it to our treaſurie, and they to take no other mens wares to barter or ſel with them, nor yet our people to buy or ſell for them their wares: and if thoſe engliſh merchants do deſire to paſſe out of our kingdom of Aſtrakhan, to Boghar, Shamakie, Chaday, or into any other countreys, or els to goe into their owne countrey, then they to take their treaſure with them, and to barter and ſel it for wares neceſſarie for our treaſurie, and to bring it and deliuer it to our chanceler, and when they come backe againe to our inheritance of Kazan and Aſtrakhan, or to any other of our caſtles and townes, that then our captaine of Kazan and Aſtrakhan, and all other our people of charge ſhall not hold them, but with ſpeed let them paſſe without taking cuſtome of them, or their wares, and without opening or looking vpon them in any wiſe: and when they haue not our treaſure with them, that then likewiſe no cuſtome ſhall be taken

of them nor their wares to be ſeene of any man.

And likewiſe we haue granted them to buy and ſell in all our kingdomes and caſtles, with all kind of wares: and we haue alſo licenced them, that when thoſe engliſh merchants doe deſire to buy and ſell with our merchants wholy together, that they ſhal haue libertie ſo to doe wholy together: and they that doe deſire to ſell their owne wares by retaile in their own houſe, that then they ſell it in their own houſe by retaile to our people, and other ſtrangers, as they can agree: and weights and arſhines to be kept in their houſe with our ſeale, and they themſelues to barter and ſell their owne wares: and no ruſſe merchant in Moſco, or any other place in our kingdome, not to ſell for them any wares, nor to buy or barter any wares for them, nor couler any ſtrangers goods. And whereas thoſe merchants of England, ſir William Garrard and his company, doe deſire to ſell their wares at Colmogor, Dvina, Vologda, Yaroſlave, Koſtroma, and in Novgorod the lower, Kazan, Aſtrakhan, great Novgorod, Pſcove, Narue, Dorpe, and in other our townes and caſtles, they ſhall haue their will to ſell it: and of their wares of England and Ruſſeland no cuſtome ſhall be taken, neither they nor their wares ſhall be ſtaied in any place: and when they depart out of Moſco, to aduertiſe our chancelor thereof, and not

not to giue any note or inuentory of any kind of their wares they carry away: and when the engliſh merchants, ſir William Garrard and his companie, doe come vpon the ſea, and by misfortune haue their ſhippes caſt away vpon thoſe coaſtes of the north partes, then we will their goods to be fought out with truth, and to be deliuered to ſir William Garrard and his company, which as then ſhall be found in our countrey: and if that ſir William Garrards company be not in Moſco nor in our countrey, then wee will and command that thoſe goods of theirs ſhall be laid vp in a place of ſafegard, vntill ſuch time as the ſayd ſir William Garrard or his company come to demaund the ſame: and then at their comming wee will that it ſhall bee deliuered. And whereas heretofore wee haue giuen ſir William Garrard and his companie in this our kingdome of Moſco, the new caſtle by the church of S. Maxime, behind the market, they ſhall there ſtill holde their houſe as heeretofore wee haue giuen them paying no cuſtome for the ſame: and wee alſo doe licence them to keepe one ruſſe porter or two, or els of their owne countrey, and thoſe porters ſhall dwell with them, and not ſell for them, nor barter, nor buy for them: And alſo I haue graunted them to buy a houſe at Vologda, and at Colmogor, or in any other place, where they can chooſe for themſelues any good harbour, and there they to ſet vp thoſe houſes in thoſe places

at their owne charges: and in Vologda or the other houſes to keepe two or three porters of their owne, or els two or three Ruſſes, and their wares to be layed vp in thoſe houſes, and to ſel their owne wares at wil: and the porters without them to ſell none of their wares, neither yet to buy any for them. And our officers of Colmogor, and Dvina, and of other our caſtles and townes ſhall not looke ouer their wares, nor take any cuſtome thereof: neither ſhall thoſe engliſh merchants, ſir William Garrard and his company, be iudged by any of them. And when the engliſh merchants ſhall ſende from our kingdome their owne people into their owne countrey by lande ouer other kingdomes whatſoeuer they be, they may without ware ſend their owne people at their pleaſure. And when any matter of lawe doeth fall out in their trade of marchandiſe, then they ſhall be iudged by our chancellours, and lawe ſhalbe done with equitie betwixt our people and them. And when they cannot be iudged by law, they then ſhall be tried by lots, and whoſe lot is firſt taken out, he ſhall haue the right: And if it happen any of thoſe marchants to haue any matter of lawe in any other part of our dominions for trade of marchants, then our captaines, iudges and chiefe officers, ſhall heare the matter, and adminiſter iuſtice with equitie and trueth, and where lawe can take no place to be tried by lots, and his lot that is firſt taken out to haue the right, and

for

for their matters of lawe no cuſtome to bee payde.

Furthermore, wee for our ſiſters ſake Elizabeth haue graunted, that none beſide ſir William Garrard and his companie, out of what kingdome ſoeuer it bee, England or other, ſhall not come in trade of marchandiſe nor otherwiſe to Colmogor, nor to the riuer Oby nor within Wardhouſe, nor to Petſchora, nor Kola, nor Mezen, nor to the abbey Petchingam, nor to the iſlande of Sallavye, nor to any mouth of the riuer of Dvina, nor to any part of the north countrey of our coaſt: and if any marchant, out of what countrey ſoeuer it be, doe come with ſhippe or ſhippes, buſſes, or any other kinde of veſſel to any of our harbors, within all our north parts, wee will, that then the people, and goods, ſhippe or ſhippes, ſhalbe confiſcate, and forfeited to vs the emperour and great duke.

Giuen in our kingdome and houſe of Moſco, the yeere from the beginning of the world 7000 three-ſcore and ſixteen, in the moneth of September, and in the 34 yeere of our raigne, and in our conqueſt of Kazan 16. and in our conqueſt of Aſtrakhan 15.

Peruſed and allowed by vs:

ANTHONIE JENKINSON
WILLIAM ROWLYE,
THOMAS HAWTRYE,
THOMAS SOUTHAM,
RAFE RUTTER, *tranſlatour hereof out of the ruſſe tongue.*

The

The Queenes Maieſties letters to the Emperour of Ruſſia, requeſting licence, and ſafe conduct for maſter Anthony Ienkinſon, to paſſe through his kingdome of Ruſſia, into Perſia, to the Great Sophie.

Elizabetha Dei gratia, Angliæ, &c. regina, ſereniſſimo & potentiſſimo principi, D. Ioanni Baſilivitche, imperatori totius Ruſſiæ, magno duci, &c. ſalutem, & omnium rerum proſperarum fœliciſſimum incrementum. Potentiſſime princeps, res eſt nobis ad memorandum longè gratiſſima, illa veſtræ maieſtatis, erga nos & noſtros amicitia. Quæ tempore fœliciſſimæ memoriæ regis Edwardi Sexti, fratris noſtri chariſſimi, Dei benignitate incepta, deinceps verò veſtra non ſolùm ſingulari humanitate alta atque ſota, ſed incredibili etiam bonitate aucta atque cumulata, nunc autem omnibus beneuolentiæ veſtræ officijs ſic firmata eſt atque conſtabilita, vt iam minimè dubitemus, quin ea ad laudem Dei, ad gloriam vtriuſque noſtrum, ad publicam noſtrorum vtrobique regnorum immenſam commoditatem, ad priuatam ſingulorum vtrinque ſubditorum optatam ſpem, certámque fœlicitatem multis ſit deinceps ſeculis duratura. Et quanquam hæc veſtra bonitas, pleniſſimè ſeſe effudit in omnes noſtros ſubditos, qui ſeſe in vllas imperij veſtri partes vnquam receperunt, (pro qua ingentes noſtras, vt par eſt, gratias

gratias veſtræ maieſtati habemus, veſtríſque viciſſim in omni opportunitatis loco libentiſſimè feremus,) tamen abundantia benignitatis veſtræ, in accipiendo, támque humanitèr tractando noſtrum fidelem & perdilectum famulum Antonium Ienkinſon, qui has perfert literas, ſeorſim nobis gratiſſima exiſtit. Nam præterquam quòd nullis non locis veſtri imperij & magna libertate, & ſumma humanitate veſtræ ſerenitatis non permiſſu ſolùm, ſed iuſſu etiam frueretur, veſtra bonitas tamen non in hac domeſtica benignè faciendi ratione conquieuit, ſed perlibentèr & vltrò eundem noſtrum hunc perdilectum famulum, varijs exteris principibus, quoquouerſus ipſe iter ſuum inſtituerat, literis ſuis, ſuo magno imperiali ſigillo conſignatis commendauit. Quod beneficium illi vbiuis gentium, & viam ſinè vllo periculo, propter publicam veſtram fidem, & aduentum cum magno fauore, propter veſtram commendationem, optatè quidem, & fœliciter communiuit. Itaque quemadmodum gemina hæc veſtra beneuolentia, cum illa generalis exhibita in veſtro regno negotiantibus ſubditis noſtris vniuerſis, tum iſta ſeorſim præſtita huic Antonio Ienkinſon, perfideli noſtro famulo, nobis in mente, non ſolùm ad gratam perpetuámque memoriam, verùm etiam ad mutuam, vel opportunam compenſationem, firmiſſimè defixa eſt: ita, petimus à veſtra maieſtate vt vtramque beneuolentiæ veſtræ rationem & communem noſtris

noſtris vniuerſis, & priuatam huic noſtro dilecto famulo, vtriſque deinceps dignetur queri, atque conſeruare. Neque nos quidem diffidimus, quin quem fauorem veſtra maieſtas antea ſua ſponte Antonio Ienkinſon, tum quidem priuato oſtendit, eundem nunc noſtro rogatu eidem Antonio in noſtrum iam famulatum cooptato benignè velit denuò declarare. Et propterea petimus à veſtra maieſtate, vt dignetur iterum concedere eidem noſtro famulo literas ſuas commeatus, publicæ fidei, ac ſaluiconductus, quarum tenore, authoritate, atque præſidio, ſit illi, familiaribus ſuis, & ſeruis, tutum, liberúmque, cum mercibus, ſarcinis, equis, & bonis ſuis vniuerſis, inuehendis euehendiſque, per veſtra regna, domicilia, atque prouincias, proficiſci, ire, tranſire, redire, abire, & iſtic morari, quamdiu placuerit, & inde recedere quandocunque illi aut ſuis libitum fuerit. Et ſicut non dubitamus, quin veſtra maieſtas hæc omnia humanitatis grata officia, pro immenſa bonitate ſuæ naturæ benignè & largitur huic famulo noſtro ſit conceſſura, ita valdè optamus, adeóque petimus, vt veſtra maieſtas eodem modo eundem noſtrum famulum, vna cum omnibus ſuis familiaribus, ac bonis, exteris alijs principibus literis ſuis dignetur commendare, præſertim verò atque ſeorſim. Magno Sophi, Perſarum imperatori, in cuius etiam imperia & ditiones idem noſter famulus gratia potiſſimè experiundi peregrina

regrina commercia, proficiſci vnà cum ſuis conſtituit.

Confidimus igitur hæc omnia noſtra poſtulata pro famuli ſpe, pro noſtra expectatione, pro veſtra bonitate, pro noſtrorum vtrinque ſubditorum commoditate, fauſta illi, grata nobis, accepta etiam veſtræ maieſtati, & noſtris vtrobique perquam vtilia euaſura. Deus veſtræ maieſtatis, &c. Datum in celeberrima noſtra ciuitate Londini, anno mundi 5523. Domini ac Dei noſtri Ieſu Chriſti 1561. regnorum verò noſtrorum tertio."

The letter to the Sophy of Perſia, which was alſo written in hebrew and italian, is as follows:

The Queenes Maieſties letters to the Great Sophie of Perſia, ſent by Maſter Anthony Ienkinſon.

Elizabetha, Dei gratia, Angliæ, Franciæ & Hiberniæ regina, &c. potentiſſimo & inuictiſſimo principi, Magno Sophi, Perſarum, Medorum, Parthorum, Hyrcanorum, Carmanorum, Margianorum, populorum cis & vltrà Tygrim fluuium, & omnium intra mare Caſpium, & Perſicum ſinum nationum atque gentium imperatori, ſalutem, & rerum proſperarum fœliciſſimum incrementum. Summi Dei benignitate factum eſt, vt quas gentes, non ſolùm immenſa terrarum ſpacia, & inſuperabiles marium vaſtitates, ſed & ipſi

etiam cœlorum cardines longiſſimè diſiunxerunt, ipſæ tamen literarum bono & mentis certa cogitata, & humanitatis grata officia, & intelligentiæ mutuæ multa commoda facilè inter ſe & opportunè poſſint communicare. Itaque cùm perdilectus, & fidelis noſter famulus Antonius Ienkinſon, qui has literas noſtras perfert, cum bona venia, fauore, & gratia noſtra hoc Angliæ noſtræ regnum excedere, & in Perſiam vſque, veſtráſque alias ditiones Dei benignitate penetrare conſtituerit, hoc illius inſtitutum perlaudabile quidem, grato noſtro fauore proſequi, & promouere ſtuduimus: id quod eo nos libentiùs facimus, quoniam hoc eius propoſitum ex honeſto ſtudio commercij conſtituendi potiſſimùm cum veſtris ſubditis, alijſque peregrinis hominibus, ad veſtra regna confluentibus, omninò exortum ſit. Propterea nobis & ſcribendum ad veſtram maieſtatem, ab eaque petendum eſſe duximus, vt noſtro rogatu dignetur concedere huic famulo noſtro Antonio Ienkinſon, literas publicæ fidei, & ſalui conductus, quarum authoritate atque præſidio, licitum liberúmque ſit illi, vnà cum ſuis familiaribus, ſeruis, ſarcinis, mercibus & bonis vniverſis, per veſtra regna, domicilia, ditiones, atque prouincias liberè, & ſine impedimento proficiſci, ire, tranſire, redire, abire, & iſtic morari, quamdiu placuerit, & inde recedere, quandocunque illi vel ſuis lubitum fuerit. Si hæc ſancta hoſpitalitatis iura & dulcia communis humanitatis officia, inter nos,

nos, noſtra regna, noſtróſque ſubditos libentèr conſtitui, ſincerè coli, & conſtantèr conſeruari queant, ſperamus nos, Deum Optimum Maximum effecturum, vt ab hijs paruis initijs, grandiora rerum momenta, nobis ad magna ornamenta atque decus, noſtris ad ſumma commoda atque vſus, aliquando ſit oritura: ſiquidem, vt non terra, non mare, non cœlum, ad nos longiſſimè ſeparandos, quàm diuina ratio communis humanitatis, & mutuæ beneuolentiæ ad nos firmiſſimè coniungendos plus virium habuiſſe videatur. Deus ſalutem omnem, & fœlicem in terris, & perpetuam in cœlis, veſtræ concedat maieſtati. Datum in Anglia, in celebri noſtra vrbe Londino, 25 die menſis Aprilis, anno mundi 5523. Domini ac Dei noſtri Jeſu Chriſti 1561. regnorum verò noſtrorum tertio.

The charter of the privileges granted by the tzar of Ruſſia to the Ruſſia company, and ſent by Thomas Randolph eſq. her majeſty's ambaſſador, and by Andrew Savin his ambaſſador, bearing date the 20th of June, 1569, runs in this manner:

" One God euerlaſting, and without, and before the beginning, the Father, the Sonne, and the holy Ghoſt, the bleſſed Trinitie, our onely God, maker, and preſeruer of all things, and repleniſher of all things euery where, who by thy goodneſſe doeſt cauſe all men to loue the giuer

of

of wiſedome our onely Mediatour, and leader of vs all vnto bleſſed knowledge by the onely Sonne his word our Lorde Jeſus Chriſt holy and euerlaſting Spirit: and now in theſe our dayes teacheſt vs to keepe chriſtianitie, and ſuffereſt vs to enioy our kingdome to the happie commoditie of our land, and wealth of our people in deſpite of our enemies, and to our fame with our friends.

1. We Ivan Vaſſillievitch emperour and great duke of all Ruſſia, (for our ſiſter Elizabeths ſake, queene of England) haue giuen and graunted to the engliſh marchants, the gouernours, conſuls, aſſiſtants and felowſhip, ſir William Garrard knight, Rowland Hayward alderman, Iohn Thamworth eſquire, Iohn Riuers alderman, Henry Beacher alderman, conſuls. Sir William Cheſter knight, Edward Iackman alderman, Lionel Ducket alderman, Edward Gilbert, Laurence Huſe, Francis Walſingham, Clement Throgmorton, Iohn Quarles, Nicholas Whealer, Thomas Baniſter, Iohn Harriſon, Francis Burneham, Anthony Gamage, Iohn Somers, Richard Wilkinſon, Iohn Sparke, Richard Barne, Robert Woolman, Thomas Browne, Thomas Smith, Thomas Allen, Thomas More, William Bully, Richard Yong, Thomas Atkinſon, aſſiſtants. Iohn Merſh eſquire, Ieffrey Ducket, Francis Robinſon, Matthew Field, and all the reſt of their companie and fellowſhip, and to their ſucceſſours and deputies, to come with ſhips, and other veſſels

veſſels into our countrey, at Colmogorod, and Dwina, and to all the north parts now being ours, or that hereafter ſhall at any time be in our poſſeſſion, by ſea, riuer or land, euen to our great citie of Moſco, in al the townes of our countrey, to Cazan and Aſtracan, to Nouogorode the great, to Plaſko and Leifland, Vriagorod, to Narue, and all other townes of Leifland; 2. And to paſſe through our land to Bowghair, Perſia, Caſbin, Chardaye, and other countreis; And whereſoeuer they come there to be and abide freely, and to barter and bargaine freely all wares of ſale, without cuſtome of all people, and marchants ſtrangers whatſoeuer.

And if ſo be they bring any fine wares out of England, or any other countrey from Bowhair, Perſia, Caſbine, or from any other place, and thoſe their wares that come by the way of Narue, or any other part into our dominion, to bring the ſame wares into our treaſure, and our treaſurers to view the ſame wares, and to take into our treaſurie of the ſame ſuch as ſhalbe needeful for vs. And all ſuch wares as we ſhal not need, our chancellour to redeliuer the ſame, and after the view of our chancellours, to barter it freely to whome they will, not ſelling any of their wares needfull for vs, before our chancellour haue ſeene the ſame. And all other groſſe and heauy wares that ſhalbe needfull to our vſe, not being brought to Moſco to declare and tell our chancellour of

the ſame wares: And to giue a note thereof by name, and how much they leaue there, not brought to Moſco: and then if we neede not the ſaid wares, the engliſh marchants, their ſeruants and factors, to conuey their wares the neereſt way to Vſtiuge the great, and ſo to Colmogorod, or elſewhere at their pleaſure, there to barter and ſell the ſame. But thoſe wares that ſhalbe needeful for our treaſurie, they ſhall not hide from vs in any caſe.

And when our chaunellours ſhall ſend our aduenture, with the ſaid marchants or their factors they to take our aduentures with them, and to ſell, and to barter for ſuch wares as ſhalbe meete for our treaſurie, and to returne it into our treaſurie.

And when wee ſhall ſende any aduenture into England, then our chancellour to giue them a yeeres warning, that their ſhips may be prouided thereafter, that by taking in of our wares, they leaue not their owne behinde them.

And to take our aduenture yeerely when they goe into Perſia.

Neither ſhal the engliſh marchants receiue or colour any of our peoples goods, nor barter nor ſel it in any wiſe: likewiſe our people not to barter for the ſaid engliſh marchants or occupy for them.

III. And when they ſhall come into our empire of Caſan and Aſtracan, and other places of

our dominions, then our captaines of Caſan and Aſtracan, and our authoriſed people, quietly to let them paſſe, not taking any toll or cuſtome of their wares, nor once to make ſearch thereof.

And when we ſhall ſend no aduenture with them, yet to ſuffer them freely to paſſe, not viewing their wares, nor taking any kinde of cuſtome. And whatſoeuer engliſh marchant will bargaine with our marchants or factors ware for ware to barter the ſame at their pleaſure.

And whatſoeuer their marchants or factors will ſel their wares at their houſe at Moſco, which houſe I granted them at S. Maxims in the city of Moſco, they to ſel the ware to our people, either ſtrangers as they may beſt vtter it, keeping within their houſe, arſhines, meaſures, and waights under ſeales.

IV. We haue graunted them the ſaid houſe at S. Maxims in the halfe free, and without ſtanding rent, as heretofore we did graunt it to the ſaid engliſh marchants, ſir William Garrard, and the companie, maintayning in the ſaid houſe one houſekeeper a Ruſſe, and two Ruſſe ſeruants, or ſome of their owne countrey men, and none other Ruſſes beſides they aforeſaid. And the ſaid houſekeepers that ſhall liue at their houſe with the engliſh marchants, neither to bye nor ſel any wares for them, but that the ſaid marchants them-

ſelues or their factors, ſhall bye, ſell, and barter their owne wares; And our Moſcouie marchants not to take the ſaid Engliſhmens wares to ſell them in our townes, nor to bye any wares for them, neither the engliſh marchant to colour any Ruſſes wares at any towne.

V. And whatſoeuer engliſh marchant wil ſel his wares at Colmogorod, Dwyna, Vologda, Yeraſlaue, Caſtran, Nouogrode the lower, Caſan, Aſtracan, Nouogorode the great, Vapſka, the Narue, Vriagorod, or at any other townes, they to ſel their wares there at their pleaſure. And of al wares aſwell of other countreis as of Ruſſia, no officer or other to take any cuſtome, neither in any place to ſtay them in any wiſe, neither take any kinde of toll of them for their wares whatſoeuer.

VI. And whatſoeuer marchant ſhal bargaine or bye any wares of engliſh marchants: The ſaid Ruſſe not to returne thoſe wares upon the marchants handes againe, but to giue readie money for the ſaid wares, otherwiſe they to craue the juſtice to giue right, and to execute the lawe vpon the ſame with all expedition. And when the engliſh marchants or factors ſhal trauaile from Moſcouie after the diſpatche of their wares and buſines, then to ſhewe themſelues vnto our chancellours, whatſoeuer wares of theirs ſhall goe from Moſco, they not to ſhewe the ſame wares to any

any our officers, nor pay no cuſtome nor toll in any place.

VII. If it ſo happen the engliſh marchants haue any wracke, and the ſhippes be brought to any port of our dominions, we to command the ſaide goods to be enquired and ſought out, and to bee giuen to the engliſh marchants, being here abiding at that time in our country, the factors, ſeruants, or deputies, of the companie aforeſaid, to whom we haue graunted this our gratious letter.

And if there happen none of the Engliſh marchants, factors, ſeruants, or deputies to bee in our countreis at ſuch time, then we will all the ſaid goods to be ſought out and beſtowed in ſome conuenient place, and when any of the companie aforewritten, bringing theſe our letters, ſhall come for their goods, we to commaund their goods to be reſtored vnto them.

VIII. Likewiſe wee haue graunted leaue to the engliſh marchants, their gouernours, conſuls, and aſſiſtants, namely, ſir William Garrard knight, Rowland Hayward, and the companie to builde houſes at Vollogda, Colmogro, and the ſeaſide, at Iuangorode, at Cherell, and in all other places of our dominions, as ſhall bee needefull for their trade. And they to keepe at the ſaide houſe one houſekeeper, a Ruſſe, and two or three men to keepe their wares at the ſaid houſes, making ſale thereof to whome they will, they, their factors

or deputies: the ſaid houſekeeper not to buy or ſell for them.

IX. Alſo wee haue giuen and graunted to the engliſh marchants, their houſe which they haue by our goodneſſe at S. Maximes in the Zenopſkie, and other their houſes in the towne of Zenopſkie, made for the better aſſurance of their goods, and all ſuch as they ſhall ſet vp hereafter ſhall be of the * opriſſini, and will make them knowen to all them of opriſſini.

X. And whereas by our goodnes we haue graunted them a ropehouſe at Vologda, being farre from the engliſh marchants houſe, nowe we haue giuen them to builde a houſe for that vſe by the ſaid engliſh houſe, and haue giuen and graunted them (of our goodneſſe) ground, one hundreth and foureſcore fadome long, and fiftie fadomes in breadth, according to their owne requeſt.

XI. Alſo, we haue of our goodneſſe giuen and graunted to the engliſh marchants, leaue to buy them a houſe at Witchida, and there to ſearch out mines of yron. And where they ſhal happily finde it, there to ſet vp houſes for the making of the ſame yron: and to make the ſame, of our good-

* *Oprichina* ſeems to be the word intended; that by which was denoted, in the time of tzar Ivan Vaſſillievitch his peculiar and perſonal property, independent on the crown. See Francis Holterhof's dictionary, at the word, which, as well as oprichnie, is formed from oprich, præter, beſides.

neſſe

neſſe haue graunted them woods, fiue or ſixe miles compaſſe about the ſaid houſes, to the making of the ſaide yron, and not to exceede theſe bounds and limits: And where they ſhall cut the ſaide wood, not to ſet vp any village or farme there, bringing the artificers for making of their yron, out of their owne countrey, and to learne our people that arte, and ſo freely occupying the ſaide yron in theſe our dominions, tranſporting alſo of the ſame home into England, allowing for euery pound one dingo, or halfepenie.

XII. And if any of the ſaid yron ſhalbe needfull for our workes, then we to take of the ſaide yron to our worke, vpon agreement of price, paying money out of our treaſurie for the ſame; And when the ſaid engliſh marchants or factors ſhall ſend their owne people out of our realme into their countrey, ouer land through any countrey whatſoeuer, freely to ſend the ſame with our words.

XIII. Alſo, we of our goodneſſe haue graunted, that if any man miſuſe the ſaide Engliſh, the factors or ſeruants, or the ſaide engliſh marchants, their factors or ſeruants abuſe any other at Moſcouie, or any other our townes whatſoeuer within our dominions in trade of marchandiſe or otherwiſe, then they to haue vpright iuſtice in all ſuch matters of our counſaile the opriſinie * with-

* *Opritchnia* is in the beforementioned dictionary interpreted to be a ſpecies of guards, præſidii militaris ſpecies, in the time of tzar Ivan Vaſſillievitch. Vid. ubi ſupra.

out all let or delay; But if our iuſtice may not agree the parties, then lots to be made, and to whoſe lotte it ſhall fall, to him the right to bee giuen, and that onely our counſaile at Moſcouie, and none of our captaines, or authoriſed people, or officers in any other our townes, giue iudgement vpon the ſaid engliſh marchants for any thing.

XIV. Alſo, if any ſtranger ſhal haue matter of controuerſie with any engliſh marchant, factor or ſeruant, abiding within theſe our realmes, or contrarywiſe any engliſh marchant, factor or ſeruant, againſt any other ſtranger, in all thoſe cauſes our counſaile of the opriſſinie, to giue them juſtice, and to make an agreement and ende betweene the parties, without all delaye; and none to deale therein, ſaue our counſaile of the opriſſinie: XV. And if any man haue action againſt any engliſh marchant being abſent, that then in his abſence it ſhalbe lawful for any other Engliſhman at his aſſignation to anſwere his cauſe.

XVI. If any Engliſhman happen to be wounded or beaten to death, or any Ruſſe or ſtranger ſlaine or beaten, XVII. Or any ſtollen goods to be found in the ſaide engliſh houſes, then our counſellers to cauſe the guiltie perſons to be ſought out, and to doe right and juſtice in the cauſe, and the partie that is guiltie, if he deſerue puniſhment, to be corrected accordingly after his offence, that the ſaid engliſh marchants, factors

and

and ſeruants ſuſtaine thereby no hinderance or damage.

XVIII. And whatſoeuer engliſh marchant, factor, ſeruant, or deputie, ſhalbe guiltie of any fault, deſeruing our diſpleaſure, then our counſailers to cauſe the guiltie partie to goe vnder ſureties, and their goods to be ſealed and kept, vntill our pleaſure bee further knowen, and our counſaile to examine their offence, and ſo to report it vnto vs, that wee may command what ſhall bee done therein, and none other to be arreſted or haue their goods ſealed, which are not guiltie of that offence, nor to ſtay or apprehend them in any of our dominions for the ſame.

XIX. If any engliſh marchant, factor or ſeruant ſhal offend, it ſhalbe lawfull for their agent to doe iuſtice vpon the ſaid partie, or to ſend him home into England at his pleaſure.

XX. If any engliſh marchant, factor or ſeruant, haue lent or hereafter ſhall lende money to any of our people, or credite them with wares, and ſo depart into any foreigne countrey, or die before the debt bee due to be paide, then our people and marchants to paye the ſaide debt, to whom ſoeuer ſhall be appointed to the ſaid roome or charge, and the ſaid engliſh marchant, factor, or ſeruant, to bring his bill of debt to our counſell, to ſhewe them what is due, and what money is owing them for any wares: and thus to doe truly, not adding any whit to the debt, and our

counſell

counſel to command the debt to be diſcharged vnto the engliſh marchant, factor, or ſeruant, without delay.

XXI. And whatſoeuer engliſh marchant ſhall be arreſted for debt, then our counſell to command the partie vnder arreſt to be deliuered to the agent: and if he haue no ſuertie, to bind the agent with him, for the better force of the bond.

And if any Engliſhman be endebted, we will the creditor not to caſt him in priſon, or to deliuer him to the ſergeant, leſt the officer loſe him, but to take ware in pawne of the debt.

XXII. Alſo of our goodnes, we haue granted the engliſh marchants to ſend our commiſſion to all our townes, captaines, and authoriſed men, to defende and gard the ſaide marchants from all theeues, robbers, and euill diſpoſed perſons.

XXIII. If in comming or going to and fro our dominions, the marchants, the factors, or ſeruants be ſpoiled on the ſea, our counſell ſhall ſend our letters, and will them to be ſought out, and where they ſhall finde the goods, cauſe it to be reſtored againe, and the offender to be puniſhed, according to our commandement.

XXIV. Alſo of our goodnes, we haue granted the ſaide marchants to take vp brokers, packers, wayers, and ſuch like labourers, as ſhall be neede-full for them, paying for their hier as the laborers and they ſhall agree.

XXV.

XXV. We likewiſe of our goodnes, haue licenſed the engliſh marchants in our townes of Moſko, Nouogorode the great, and Paſko, that the coiners of the ſaid townes ſhall melt dollers, and coine money for them, without cuſtome, allowing for coales, and other neceſſaries, with the workemanſhip.

XXVI. Alſo of our goodnes, wee haue granted to the ſaid engliſh merchants, to take poſte horſe at needefull times, leauing with our officers a note how many they take, and not els, in no caſe hindering or diminiſhing our treaſurie.

XXVII. Alſo for our ſiſter queene Elizabeths ſake, we of our goodnes haue granted to the merchants within written, this our letter, and to their ſucceſſors, that no Engliſhman, nor any other ſtranger, come without the queenes leaue to Colmogorode, the riuer of Vob, Vaſiagy, Pechora, Cowlaye, Meſeyne, Pechmecoue, Zeleutſkyes iſland, the riuer of Shame, nor to no other hauen of Dwina, nor to any part of the northſide of Dwina, by hetherward of Wardhouſe, to any hauen, with ſhippe, buſſe, or any other veſſell, nor to occupie in any kind of waies, but onely the ſaid engliſh companie, and their ſucceſſors, to whome we of our goodnes haue granted this priuiledge.

XXVIII. Alſo that no engliſh merchant, without the queenes leaue, ſhall come with any wares, to the Narue, or Vriogorode.

XXIX.

XXIX. And whatſoeuer engliſh merchant, ſtranger, or other, of whatſoeuer countrey he be, ſhall come with any ſhippe, buſſe, or any other veſſell, to any of the ſaid hauens, of the north ſide, to any part of Dwina, by north the Narue, or Vriagorode, without the queenes leaue or knowledge, not being of the company aboue written, wee to apprehende and take the ſame veſſell from thoſe ſtrangers and merchants, the one halfe to vs the emperour, and great duke, and the other halfe to the companie of engliſh merchants.

XXX. Alſo of our goodnes, we haue granted the ſaid companie of engliſh merchants, that no engliſh merchants or ſtrangers ſhall paſſe through our dominions, to Boghare, Perſia, Caſbin, Chardaye, or other countreies, ſaue onely the companie of engliſh merchants, and our owne meſſengers.

XXXI. Alſo whatſoeuer Engliſhman, comming out of England, or any other countrey, into our dominions, without the queenes leaue, and knowledge, not being of the ſaid companie, written within thoſe our letters, mind, and purpoſe, to abide in our realme, contrary to the queene's will and pleaſure, or any way abuſe himſelfe, the agent ſhall freely ſend him home, to the queene his ſoueraigne: which if the agent of himſelfe be vnable to do, let him pray for aide of the captaines and officers of our townes there being, and ſo ſend him

to priſon, and will the ſaide captaines not to hinder the ſaid agent from ſending home ſuch euill perſons into England.

XXXII. And if any man within our countrey, runne away to any other towne, or place, the engliſh merchants, and factors, to haue free libertie to apprehende him, and take their goods from him againe.

XXXIII. And as for our priuiledge, giuen to Thomas Glouer, Ralfe Rutter, Chriſtopher Bennet, Iohn Chappell, and their adherents, we haue commanded the ſame priuiledges to be taken from them.

XXXIV. Alſo we of our goodnes haue granted the ſaid company of engliſh merchants, their ſucceſſors ſeruants and deputies, that doe or ſhall remaine at Muſko, or elſewhere within our dominions freely to keepe their owne lawe: and in any wiſe none of ours, to force them to our lawe or faith againſt their will.

Moreouer, beſides and with the companie of engliſh merchants, we permit all ſtrangers, to trade to our towne of Narue, Vriogorode, and other our townes of Leifland, as they haue done before time. From the beginning of the world 7077. in the moneth of June 20. indiction 12. The yeere of our lordſhip and reigne 35. and of our empire of Ruſland 23, Caſan 17. Aſtracan 15.

Other

Other ſpeciall graunts by his Maieſties priuate letters at the ſuite of Maſter Randolph embaſſadour.

RELEASEMENT out of priſon of Fitzherbert, that was accuſed for writing of letters againſt the emperour.

Liberty giuen to Thomas Greene, that was accuſed and troubled vpon ſuſpicion of his dealing with the embaſſadour, and licence giuen to him to traffique as he was accuſtomed.

Andrew Atherton and his ſureties releaſed at the Narue and his ſeruaunt at the Moſko, that were in trouble for ſending the merchants letters into England.

A letter graunted to Thomas Southam to the counſaile for iuſtice againſt them that ſtole the pearles.

His maieſties fauour promiſed to the artificers, and liuings to be appointed them as they can beſt deſerue.

A letter to the merchants that went into Perſia, to paſſe freely without impeachment in his dominions, as alſo letters of fauour to the great Shawe of Perſia.

A graunt vnto the companie that at what time ſoeuer, they ſend to the diſcouery of Cataya, they

they ſhalbe licenſed to repaire vnto this countrey and haue ſuch conducts and guides, marriners, veſſels, men, and victuals as they ſhall ſtand in neede of.

It is alſo promiſed by kneez Aſifana, and Peter Gregoriwich in the emperours name, that if Benet Butler or any Engliſhman complaine, deface, hinder in way of traffique, or otherwiſe goe about to diſcredite the worſhipfull companie, and their doinges, that therein they ſhall not bee harde, and the doers to bee puniſhed, as in ſuch caſes they ſhalbee iudged to haue deſerued.

Certaine perſons graunted to be ſent home into England that ſerued the company, and were practiſers againſt them in that countrey

A Commiſſion

A Commiſſion giuen by vs Thomas Randolph, Embaſſadour for the Queenes Maieſtie in Ruſſia, and Thomas Banniſter, &c. vnto Iames Baſſendine, Iames Woodcocke, and Richard Browne, the which Baſſendine, Woodcocke, and Browne we appoint iointly together, and ayders, the one of them to the other, in a voyage of diſcouery to be made (by the grace of God) by them, for ſearching of the ſea, and border of the coaſt, from the riuer Pechora, to the Eaſtwardes, as hereafter followeth, Ann. 1588. The firſt of Auguſt.

INPRIMIS, when your barke with all furniture is ready, you ſhall at the beginning of the yeere (as ſoone as you poſſible may) make your repaire to the eaſterne part of the riuer Pechora, where is an iſland called Dolgoieue, and from thence you ſhall paſſe to the eaſtwardes alongeſt by the ſea coaſt of Hugorie or the mayne lande of Pechora, and ſayling alongſt by the ſame coaſt, you ſhall paſſe within ſeuen leagues of the iſland Vaigattes which is in the ſtraight, almoſt halfe way from the coaſt of Hugorie, vnto the coaſt of Noua Zembla, which iſland Vaigattes and Noua Zembla, you ſhall finde noted in your plat, therefore you ſhall not neede to diſcouer it: but proceede on alongeſt the coaſt of Hugorie, towardes the riuer Obba.

There

There is a bay betweene the ſaide Vaigattes, and the riuer Obba, that doth byte to the ſouthwardes, into the lande of Hugorie, in which bay are two ſmall riuers, the one called Cara Reca, the other Narmſye, as in the paper of notes which are giuen to you herewith may appeare, in the which baye you ſhall not neede to ſpende any time for ſearching of it, but to direct your courſe to the riuer Ob, (if otherwiſe you be not conſtrained to keepe alongſt the ſhoare,) and when you come to the riuer Ob, you ſhall not enter into it, but paſſe ouer, vnto the eaſterne parte of the mouth of the ſaid riuer.

And when you are at the eaſterne part of the mouth of Obba Reca, you ſhall from thence paſſe to the eaſtwards, alongſt by the border of the ſaid coaſt, deſcribing the ſame in ſuch perfect order, as you can beſt doe it. You ſhall not leaue the ſaide coaſte or border of the land, but paſſe alongſt by it, at leaſt in ſight of the ſame, vntill you haue ſailed by it ſo farre to the eaſtwards, and the time of the yeere ſo farre ſpent, that you doe thinke it time for you to returne with your barke to winter, which trauell may well be three or 400. leagues to the eaſtwards of the Ob, if the ſea doe reach ſo farre, as our hope is it doth: but and if you finde not the ſaid coaſt and ſea to trende ſo farre to the eaſtwards, yet you ſhall not leaue the coaſt at any time, but proceede alongſt by it, as it doth lie, leauing no part of it vnſearched, or ſeene, vnleſſe

it be ſome baye, or riuer, that you doe certainly know by the report of the people, that you ſhall finde in thoſe borders, or elſe ſome certaine tokens, wherby you of your ſelues may iudge it to be ſo. For our hope is, that the ſaid border of land, and ſea, doth in ſhort ſpace after you paſſe the Ob, incline eaſt, and ſo the ſouthwardes. And therefore we would haue no part of the land of your ſtarreboord ſide, as you proceede in your diſcouerie, to be left vndiſcouered.

But and if the ſaid border of land doe not incline ſo to the eaſtwards, as we preſuppoſe it, but that it doe prooue to incline, and trende to the northwardes, and ſo ioyne with Noua Zembla, making the ſea from Vaigats to the eaſtwards but a baye: yet we will that you doe keepe alongſt by the ſaid coaſt, and ſo bring vs certaine report of that forme and manner of the ſame baye.

And if it doe ſo prooue to be a baye, and that you haue paſſed rounde about the ſame, and ſo by the trending of the land come backe vnto that part of Noua Zembla, that is againſt Vaigats, whereas you may from that ſee the ſaid iſland Vaigats, if the time of the yeere will permit you, you ſhall from thence paſſe alongſt by the ſaid border and coaſt of Noua Zembla, to the weſtwards, and ſo to ſearch whether that part of Noua Zembla doe ioyne with the lande, that ſir Hugh Willoughbie diſcouered in anno 53. and is in 72. degrees,

degrees, and from that part of Noua Zembla, 120. leagues to the weſtwards, as your plat doth ſhewe it vnto you: and if you doe finde that lande to ioyne with Noua Zembla, when you come to it, you ſhall proceede further along the ſame coaſt, if the time of the yeere will permit it, and that you doe thinke there will be ſufficient time for you to returne backe with your barke to winter, either at Pechora, or into Ruſſia, at your diſcretion: for wè referre the ſame to your good iudgements, truſting that you will loſe no time, that may further your knowledge in this voyage.

Note you, it was the 20. of Auguſt, 56. ere the Serchethrift began to returne backe from her diſcouerie, to winter in Ruſſia, and then ſhe came from the iſland of Vaigats, being forcibly driuen from thence, with an eaſterly winde, and yce, and ſo ſhe came into the riuer Dwina, and arriued at Colmogro, the 11. of September, 56. If the yce had not bene ſo much that yeere, as it was, in the Streights, on both ſides of the iſland Vaigats, they in the ſaid pinneſſe, would that yeere haue diſcouered the partes that you are nowe ſent to ſeeke: which thing (if it had pleaſed God) might haue bene done then: but God hath reſerued it for ſome other. Which diſcouerie, if it may be made by you, it ſhall not onely proue profitable vnto you, but it will alſo purchaſe perpetuall fame and renowne, both to you, and our countrey. And thus not doubting of

your willing deſires, and forwardnes towards the ſame, we pray God to bleſſe you, with a luckie beginning, fortunate ſucceſſe, and happily to ende the ſame. Amen.

Neceſſarie notes to be obſerued, and followed in your diſcouerie, as hereafter followeth.

When your barke with all furniture, and neceſſaries, ſhall be in readines for you to depart to the ſea (if it be that you take your barke at S. Nicholas, or any part of Dwina Reca) you ſhall from thence, euen as timely in the ſpring as the yce will permit you, ſaile, and make all expedition that may be, vnto the mouth of the riuer Pechora, (as your commiſſion doth leade you) and as you paſſe by the coaſt all alongſt, notwithſtanding the plat that ſheweth you the deſcription of the ſaid coaſt, from Dwina vnto Vaigats,) yet you ſhall ſeeke by all the meanes that you can, to amend the ſame plat, vſing as many obſeruations, as you poſſibly can doe: and theſe notes following, are to be obſerued by you principally.

1. Firſt, that you doe obſerue the latitude as often, and in as many places, as you may poſſibly doe it, noting diligently the place where you doe ſo obſerue the ſame.

2. Alſo

2. Alſo that you doe diligently ſet with your compaſſe, how the land doth lie from point to point, all alongſt as you goe, and to vſe your iudgementes howe farre there may bee betweene eche of them.

3. Item, that you doe alwayes vſe to drawe the proportion, and byting of the land, as well the lying out of the poyntes, and head lands, vnto the which you ſhall giue ſome apt names (at your diſcretion) as alſo the forme of the bayes, and to make ſome marke in drawing the forme, and border of the ſame, where the high cliffes are, and where lowe land is, whether ſandie hilles, or whatſoeuer: omitte not to note any thing, that may be ſenſible, and apparant to you, which may ſerue to any purpoſe.

4. In paſſing along by any coaſt, that you keepe your lead going often times, and ſound, at the leaſt once euery glaſſe, and oftener if you thinke good as occaſion doeth ſerue, and note diligently the depth with the maner of the grounde, and at euery time, howe farre the ſame ſounding may be from the next ſhore to it: and howe the next poynt or head land doth beare from you. And in the ſea after you ſet off from your porte, you ſhall orderly at the end of euery foure glaſſes ſound, and if you finde ground, note the depth and what grounde, but if you can finde no ground, you ſhall alſo note in what depth you could finde no ground.

5. Alſo that you doe diligently obſerue the flowing, and ebbing in euery place, and how the tides do ſet, which way the flood doth come, and how much water it doth high in euery place, and what force the ſame tide hath to driue a ſhip in an houre, as neere as you can iudge it.

6. Alſo that you doe ſeeke to obſerue with the inſtrument, which I deliuer you herewith, according as I taught you at Roſe iſland, the true platformes, and diſtances, in as many places as conueniently you may, for it ſerueth very aptly your purpoſe.

7. Alſo that you take with you paper and ynke, and keepe a continuall iournall, or remembrance day by day, of all ſuch things as ſhal fal out worth the knowledge, not forgetting, or omitting to write it, and note it, that it may be ſhewed and read at your returne.

8. Theſe orders if you ſhall diligently obſerue, it will bee eaſie for you to make a platte, and perfect deſcription of your diſcouerie, and ſo ſhall your notes bee ſufficient to anſwere that which is looked for at your handes. But withall you may not forgette, to note as manie thinges as you can learne and vnderſtande by the reporte of anie people whatſoeuer they be, ſo that it appertaine any way to our deſires. And thus the Lord God proſper your voyage. Amen.

Certaine

Certaine letters in verſe, written by Maſter George Turberuile out of Moſcouia, which went as Secretarie thither with Maſter Thomas Randolph, her Maieſties Embaſſadour to the Emperour 1568. to certaine friends of his in London, deſcribing the manners of the Countrey, and people.

To his eſpeciall friend Maſter Edward Dancie.

MY Dancie deere, when I recount within my breſt,
My London friends, and wonted mates, and thee aboue the reſt:
I feele a thouſand fittes of deepe and deadly woe,
To thinke that I from land to ſea, from bliſſe to bale did goe.
I left my natiue ſoyle, full like a retchleſſe man,
And vnacquainted of the coaſt, among the Ruſſies ran:
A people paſſing rude, to vices vile inclinde,
Folke fitte to be of Bacchus trayne, ſo quaffing is their kinde.
Drinke is their whole deſire, the pot is all their pride,
The ſobreſt head doeth once a day ſtand needfull of a guide.
If he to banquet bid his friends, he will not ſhrinke
On them at dinner to beſtowe a douzen kindes of drinke:
Such licour as they haue, and as the countrey giues,
But chiefly two, one called kuas, whereby the mouſike liues:
Small ware and water like, but ſomewhat tarte in taſte,
The reſt is meade of honie made, wherewith their lippes they baſte.
And if he goe vnto his neighbour as a gueſt,
He cares for little meate, if ſo his drinke be of the beſt.
No wonder though they vſe ſuch vile and beaſtly trade,
Sith with the hatchet and the hand, their chiefeſt gods be made.
Their idoles haue their heartes, on God they neuer call,
Vnleſſe it be (Nichola Bough) that hangs againſt the wall.
The houſe that hath no god, or paynted ſaint within,
Is not to be reſorted too, that roofe is full of ſinne.

Beſides their priuate gods, in open places ſtand
Their croſſes vnto which they crooche, and bleſſe themſelues with hand.
Deuoutly downe they ducke, with forehead to the ground,
Was neuer more deceit in ragges, and greaſie garments found.
Almoſt the meaneſt man in all the countrie rides,
The woman eke againſt our vſe, her trotting horſe beſtrides.
In ſundry colours they both men, and women goe,
In buſkins all, that money haue on buſkins to beſtoe.
Eche woman hanging hath a ring within her eare,
Which all of auncient vſe, and ſome of very pride doe weare.
Their gate is very braue, their countenance wiſe and ſadde,
And yet they follow fleſhly luſtes, their trade of liuing baddе.
It is no ſhame at all accounted to defile
Anothers bedde, they make no care, their follies to concile.
Is not the meaneſt man in all the land but hee,
To buy her paynted colours doth allow his wife a fee,
Wherewith ſhe deckes her ſelfe, and dyes her tawnie ſkinne,
She prankes and paintes her ſmoakie face, both browe, lippe, cheeke, and chinne.
Yea thoſe that honeſt are, if any ſuch there bee
Within the lande, doth vſe the like: a man may plainely ſee
Vpon ſome womens cheekes the paynting how it lyes,
In plaiſter ſort for that too thicke, her face the harlot dies.
But ſuch as ſkilfull are, and cunning dames indeede,
By daily practiſe doe it well, yea ſure they doe exceede.
They lay their colours ſo, as he that is full wiſe,
May eaſily be deceiu'd therein, if he doe truſt his eyes.
I not a little muſe, what madnes makes them paint
Their faces, waying how they keepe the ſtooue by meere conſtraint.
For ſeldome when, vnleſſe on church or marriage day
A man ſhall ſee the dames abroade, that are of beſt aray.
The Ruffie meanes to reape the profit of her pride,
And ſo he mewes her, to be ſure ſhe lye by no mans ſide.
Thus much friend Dancie, I did meane to write to thee,
To let thee weete in Ruſſia land, what men and women bee.
Hereafter I perhaps of other thinges will write
To thee, and other of my friendes, which I ſhall ſee with light:
And other ſtuffe beſides, which true report ſhall tell,
Meane while I ende my louing lines, and bid thee now farewell.

To

To Spencer.

IF I ſhould now forget, or not remember thee,
Thou Spencer mighteſt a ſoule rebuke, and ſhame impute to mee.
For I to open ſhew did loue thee paſſing well,
And thou wert he at parture, whom I loathde to bid farewell.
And as I went thy friend, ſo I continue ſtill,
No better proofe thou canſt then this deſire of true good will.
I doe remember well when needes I ſhould away,
And that the poſte woulde licence vs, no longer time to ſtay:
Thou wrongſt me by the fiſt, and holding faſt my hand,
Didſt cgaue of me to ſend thee newes, and how I liked the land.
It is a ſandie ſoile, no very fruitfull vaine,
More waſte and wooddie grounds there are, then cloſes fit for graine.
Yet graine there growing is, which they vntimely take,
And cut or eare the corne be ripe, they mowe it on a ſtake.
And laying ſheaſe by ſheaſe, their harueſt ſo they drie,
They make the greater haſte, for feare the froſt the corne deſtroy.
For in the winter time, ſo glarie is the ground,
As neither graſſe, nor other graine, in paſtures may be found.
In coms the cattell then, the ſheepe, the colt, the cowe,
Faſt by his bed, the mowſike then, a lodging doth allowe,
Whom he with fodder feedes, and holds as deere as life:
And thus they weare the winter, with the mowſike and his wife.
Seuen months the winter dures, the glare it is ſo great,
As it is May before he turne his ground to ſowe his wheate.
The bodies eke that die, vnburied lie they then,
Laid vp in coffins made of firre, as well the pooreſt men,
As thoſe of greater ſtate: the cauſe is lightly found,
For that in winter time, they can not come to breake the ground.
And wood ſo plenteous is, quite throughout all the land
As rich, and poore, at time of death aſſurd of coffins ſtand.
Perhaps thou muſeſt much, how this may ſtand with reaſon,
That bodies dead can vncorrupt abide ſo long a ſeaſon.
Take this for certaine trothe, as ſoon as heate is gone,
The force of colde the bodie binds as hard as any ſtone,

Without

Without offence at all to any liuing thing:
And ſo they lye in perfect ſtate, till next returne of ſpringe.
Their beaſts be like to ours, as farre as I can ſee
For ſhape, and ſhewe, but ſomewhat leſſe of bulke, and bone they be.
Of watriſh taſte, the fleſh not firme, like Engliſh beefe,
And yet it ſerus them very well, and is a good releefe:
Their ſheepe are very ſmall, ſharpe fingled, handfull long,
Great ſtore of fowle on ſea and land, the mooriſh reedes amonge.
The greatnes of the ſtore, doth make the prices leſſe,
Beſides in all the land they knowe not how good meate to dreſſe.
They vſe neither broach nor ſpit, but when the ſtooue they heate,
They put their victuals in a pan, and ſo they bake their meate.
No pewter to be had, no diſhes but of wood,
No vſe of trenchers, cups cut out of byrche are very good.
They vſe but wooden ſpoones, which hanging in a caſe,
Eache mowſike at his girdle ties, and thinkes it no diſgrace.
With whitles two or three, the better man the moe,
The cheefeſt Ruffies in the land, with ſpoone and knines doe goe.
Their houſes are not huge of building, but they ſay,
They plant them in the loftieſt ground, to ſhift the ſnowe away.
Which in the winter time, eache where full thicke they lie,
Which makes them haue the more deſire, to ſet their houſes high.
No ſtone worke is in vſe, their roofes of rafters be,
One linked in another faſt, their wals are all of tree.
Of maſts both long, and large, with moſſe put in betweene,
To keepe the force of weather out, I neuer earſt haue ſeene
A groſſe deuiſe ſo good, and on the roofe they lay
The birchen barke, to rid the raine, and ſudden ſhowres away.
In euery roome a ſtoue, to ſerue the winter turne,
Of wood they haue ſufficient ſtore, as much as they can burne.
They haue no Engliſh glaſſe, of ſlices of a rocke
Hight ſluda, they their windowes make, that Engliſh glaſſe doth mocke.
They cut it very thinne, and ſowe it with a thred
In pretie order like to panes, to ſerue their preſent neede.
No other glaſſe good faith, doth giue a better light:
And ſure the rocke is nothing rich, the coſt is very ſlight.
The chiefeſt place is that, where hangs the god by it.
The owner of the houſe himſelfe doth neuer ſit,

Vnleſſe

Vnleſſe his better come, to whom he yeelds the ſeat,
The ſtranger bending to the god, the ground with brow muſt beat.
And in that very place which they moſt ſacred deeme,
The ſtranger lyes: a token that his gueſt he doth eſteeme.
Where he is wont to haue a beares ſkinne for his bed,
And muſt in ſtead of pillow, clap his ſaddle to his head.
In Ruſſia other ſhift there is not to be had,
For where the bedding is not good, the boalſters are but bad.
I muſed very much, what made them ſo to lie,
Sith in theyr countrey downe is rife, and feathers out of crie:
Vnleſſe it be becauſe the countrey is ſo hard,
They feare by niceneſſe of a bed theyr bodyes would be mard.
I wiſht thee oft with us, ſaue that I ſtood in feare
Thou wouldſt haue loathed to haue layd thy limmes vpon a beare,
As I and Stafford did, that was my mate in bed:
And yet (we thanke the God of heauen) we both right well haue ſped.
Loe thus I make an end: none other newes to thee,
But that the countrey is too colde, the people beaſtly bee.
I write not all I know, I touch but heere and there,
For if I ſhould, my pen would pinch, and eke offend I feare.
Who ſo ſhall reade this verſe, coniecture of the reſt,
And thinke by reaſon of our trade, that I do thinke the beſt.
But if no traffike were, then could I boldly pen
The hardneſſe of the ſoile, and eke the maners of the men,
They ſay the lions paw giues iudgement of the beaſt:
And ſo may you deeme of the great, by reading of the leaſt.

To

To Parker.

MY Parker, paper, pen, and inke were made to write,
And idle heads, that little do, haue leiſure to indite:
Wherefore, reſpecting theſe, and thine aſſured loue,
If I would write no newes to thee, thou might'ſt my pen reproue.
And ſithence fortune thus hath ſhou'd my ſhippe on ſhore,
And made me ſeeke another realme vnſeene of me before:
The maners of the men I purpoſe to declare,
And other priuate points beſides, which ſtrange and geazon are.
The Ruſſie men are round of bodies, fully faſte,
The greateſt part with bellies bigge that ouerhang the waſte,
Flat headed for the moſt, with faces nothing faire,
But browne, by reaſon of the ſtoue, and cloſeneſſe of the aire:
It is theyr common vſe to ſhaue or els to ſheare
Theyr heads, for none in all the land long lolling locks doth weare,
Unleſſe perhaps he haue his ſouereigne prince diſpleas'd,
For then he neuer cuts his haire, vntill he be appeas'd.
A certaine ſigne to know who in diſpleaſure be,
For euery man that viewes his head, will ſay, Loe this is he.
And during all the time he lets his locks to grow,
Dares no man for his life to him a face of friendſhip ſhow.
Theyr garments be not gay, nor handſome to the eye,
A cap aloft theyr heads they haue, that ſtandeth very hye,
Which colpacke they do terme. They weare no ruffes at all:
The beſt haue collers ſet with pearle, which they rubaſca call.
Theyr ſhirts in Ruſſie long, they worke them downe before,
And on the ſleeues with coulered ſilks, two inches good and more
Aloft theyr ſhirts they weare, a garment iacket wiſe
Hight onoriadka, and about his burlie waſte he tyes
His portkies, which in ſtead of better breeches bee:
Of linnen cloth that garment is, no codpiece is to ſee.
A payre of yarnen ſtocks to keepe the colde away,
Within his boots the Ruſſie weares, the heeles they vnderlay
With clouting clamps of ſteele ſharpe pointed at the toes,
And ouer all a ſuba furd, and thus the Ruſſie goes.

Well

Well butned is the ſube, according to his ſtate,
Some ſilke, of ſiluer other ſome, but thoſe of pooreſt rate
Do weare no ſubes at all, but groſſer gownes to ſigbt,
That reacheth downe beneath the calfe, and that armacha hight:
Theſe are the Ruſſies robes. The richeſt vſe to ride
From place to place, his ſeruant runnes, and followes by his ſide.
The caſſacke beares his felt, to force away the raine:
Their bridles are not very braue, their ſaddles are but plaine.
No bits but ſnaffles all, of birch their ſaddles bee,
Much faſhioned like the Scotiſh ſeats, broad ſlacks to keep the knee
From ſweating of the horſe, the pannels larger farre
And broader be then ours, they vſe ſhort ſtirrups for the warre:
For when the Ruſſie is purſued by cruell foe,
He rides away, and ſuddenly betakes him to his boe,
And bends me but about in ſaddle as he ſits,
And therewithall amids his race, his following foe he hits.
Theyr bowes are very ſhort, like Turkie bowes outright,
Of ſinowes made with birchen barke, in cunning maner dight.
Small arrowes, cruell heads, that fell and forked bee,
Which being ſhot from out thoſe bowes, a cruell way will flee.
They ſeldome vſe to ſhoo their horſe, vnleſſe they vſe to ride
In poſt vpon the frozen fluds, then cauſe they ſhall not ſlide;
He ſets a ſlender calke, and ſo he rides his way.
The horſes of the countrey go good foureſcore verſts a day,
And all without the ſpurre, once pricke them and they ſkippe,
But go not forward on their way, the Ruſſie hath his whippe
To rappe him on the ribbes, for though all booted bee,
Yet ſhall you not a payre of ſpurres in all the countrey ſee.
The common game is cheſſe, almoſt the ſimpleſt will
Both giue a checke and eke a mate, by practiſe comes theyr ſkill.
Againe the dice as faſt, the pooreſt roges of al
Will ſit them downe in open field, and there to gaming fall.
Their dice are very ſmall, in faſhion like to thoſe
Which we do vſe, he takes them vp, and ouer thumbe he throwes
Not ſhaking them a whit, they caſt ſuſpiciouſlie,
And yet I deeme them void of art that dicing moſt applie.
At play when ſiluer lacks goes ſaddle, horſe and all,
And ech thing els worth ſiluer walkes, although the price be ſmall.

Becauſe

Becauſe thou loueſt to play friend Parker other while,
I wiſh thee there the weary day, with dicing to beguile.
But thou weart better fare at home, I wiſt it well,
And wouldeſt be loath, among ſuch lowts ſo long a time dwell.
Then iudge of vs thy friends, what kinde of life we had,
That neere the frozen pole to waſte our weary dayes were glad.
In ſuch a ſauage ſoile, where lawes do beare no ſway,
But all is at the king his will, to ſaue or els to ſlay.
And that ſans cauſe God wot, if ſo his minde be ſuch,
But what meane I with kings to deale, we ought no ſaints to touch:
Conceiue the reſt your ſelfe, and deeme what liues they lead,
Where luſt is law, and ſubiects liue continually in dread.
And where the beſt eſtates haue none aſſurance good
Of lands, of liues, nor nothing falles vnto the next of blood.
But all of cuſtome doth vnto the prince redowne,
And all the whole reuenue comes vnto the king his crowne.
Good faith I ſee thee muſe at what I tell thee now,
But true it is, no choice, but all at princes pleaſure bow.
So Tarquine ruled Rome as thou remembreſt well,
And what his fortune was at laſt, I know thy ſelfe canſt tell.
Where will in common weale doth beare the onely ſway,
And luſt is law, the prince and realme muſt needs in time decay.
The ſtrangeneſſe of the place is ſuch for ſundry things I ſee,
As if I would I can not write ech priuate point to thee.
The colde is rare, the people rude, the prince ſo full of pride,
The realme ſo ſtored with monks and nunnes, and prieſts on euery ſide:
The maners are ſo Turkie like, the men ſo full of guile,
The women wanton, temples ſtuft with idols that defile:
The ſeats that ſacred ought to be, the cuſtomes are ſo quaint,
As if I would deſcribe the whole, I feare my penne would faint.
In ſumme, I ſay I neuer ſaw a prince that ſo did raigne,
Nor people ſo beſet with ſaints, yet all but vile and vaine.
Wilde Iriſh are as ciuill as the Ruſſies in theyr kinde,
Hard choice which is the beſt of both ech bloudy, rude and blinde.
If thou be wiſe, as wiſe thou art, and wilt be rulde by me,
Liue ſtill at home, and couet not thoſe barbarous coaſts to ſee.
No good befalles a man that ſeeks, and findes no better place,
No ciuill cuſtomes to be learnd, where God beſtowes no grace.

And

And truelie ill they do deſerue to be belou'd of God,
That neither loue nor ſtand in awe of his aſſured rod:
Which though be long, yet plagues at laſt the vile and beaſtly ſort
Of ſinfull wights, that all in vice do place theyr chiefeſt ſport.
Adieu friend Parker, if thou liſt, to know the Ruſſes well,
To Sigiſmundus booke repayre, who all the trueth can tell:
For he long earſt in meſſage went vnto that ſauage king,
Sent by the Pole, and true report in ech reſpect did bring.
To him I recommend my ſelfe, to eaſe my penne of paine,
And now at laſt do wiſh thee well, and bid farewell againe.

From this period, till the death of Ivan Vaſſilievitch II. the engliſh commerce to Ruſſia, ſome few interruptions excepted, went on in as flouriſhing a manner as could reaſonably be expected of ſo young a branch of trade. The company eſtabliſhed colonies in ſeveral parts of the empire. Their grand ſettlement was at Moſco; at Novgorod and Vologda they had houſes, and in Kholmogor even landed property. The principal articles at firſt exported by the Engliſh, conſiſted in furs, hides, maſts, hemp, flax, cordage, tallow, train-oil, pitch, tar and leather. Their import trade extended to broad cloths, ſilk and cotton ſtuffs, trinkets, ſugar, paper, copper, lead, &c. The number of engliſh ſhips employed in fetching and carrying theſe commodities was gradually increaſing; in the year 1582 it amounted to nine.

At firſt Kholmogor ſerved them as their chief mart: on Randolph's coming to Ruſſia, the port of St. Nicholas, conſiſted, beſides the monaſtery, of only nine houſes. The firſt ſteps for conſtructing a proper town were made in 1584, the year in which Ivan II. died; and when finiſhed it obtained the name of New Kholmogor. In the year 1637, having been entirely conſumed by fire, it was completely rebuilt of brick, by the aſſiſtance of the foreigners Peter Marſelis and William Scharf, when, from the adjacent monaſtery of the archangel Michael, it was named Archangelſk *

The great and excluſive privileges that were granted to the Engliſh by Ivan Vaſſilievitch, may to ſome perſons appear contradictory to the known policy of that prince; in order to explain this indulgence, we muſt be acquainted with the ſecret hiſtory of the ruſſian court at that time. The hatred entertained by the tzar againſt the Hanſa and Livonia was certainly one concurrent cauſe; but a motive of ſtill greater force was in the favourable prepoſſeſſions which Ivan had conceived for the Engliſh, and in the ſubjects of the private correſpondence which he carried on with queen Elizabeth. His frequent acts of ſeverity and

* Heym's Encycl. 33. Lepekhin's travels, tom. iii. p. 208. —Tſchulkof, part I. tom. i. p. 355. erroneouſly places the building of Archangel in the year 1667.

cruelty exerciſed againſt his ſubjects, which had procured him the ſurname of the Terrible; his numerous innovations, which militated with the ſuperſtition and the prejudices of his country, had worked up the minds of the people to ſuch a pitch, that even the fierce Ivan himſelf could not remain without diſquietude. He could put ſo little confidence in the apparent ſubmiſſiveneſs of his ſubjects, that he procured an aſſurance from queen Elizabeth that he ſhould find an aſylum in her dominions, in caſe of a revolution in his own. With this negotiation another was combined, relating to a propoſal of marriage with lady Anne Haſtings, daughter of the earl of Huntingdon. — The truth of theſe facts is eſtabliſhed by original records ſubſiſting among the archives in the college of foreign affairs at Moſco.

On theſe premiſes the readineſs of the tzar to favour the commercial monopoly of the Engliſh, is eaſily explained; though at the ſame time it cannot be denied that likewiſe gratitude and policy ſeem to have had ſome ſhare in this act of complaiſance. It was but reaſonable, that the inventors of a new branch of commerce, ſo advantageous to Ruſſia, and attended with ſo many dangers and difficulties to the engliſh adventurers, ſhould enjoy a pre-eminence of favour, and it was certainly a maxim of prudence not to oppreſs the juſt opening trade by too early ſpeculations in finance. Notwithſtanding, however, the great

and beneficial privileges that were granted to the Engliſh, numerous obſtacles aroſe to check the progreſs of their trade. It is eaſy to imagine that the company were obliged to make conſiderable ſacrifices, ere they could derive any profit from the commerce to Ruſſia: ſuch as the equipment of the ſhips, and the pay of their officers and crews, the ſalaries of their agents and deputies, the preſents neceſſary to be made to the ruſſian court and the miniſters, the conſtruction of warehouſes and dwellings, together with many other expenſive circumſtances. They were forced to pay annually to the king of Denmark a certain ſum for the free navigation of the North-ſea, and for the liberty of putting into the harbours on the coaſt of Norway in ſtreſs of weather. Add to this, that the balances due from the Ruſſians to the Engliſh were not always accurately paid. By an account delivered in the year 1581, the tzarian treaſury was in arrears, partly for goods and partly for money received, four thouſand two hundred and ſeventy-three rubles, twenty-five altines. Even the exemption from duties repeatedly certified to the Engliſh, was dropped in the latter years of the reign of Ivan II. and they were bound to pay the yearly ſum of two thouſand pounds in lieu of duties.

Still greater impediments were thrown in the way of the riſing commerce by the jealouſy of other nations. King Guſtavus I. of Sweden, perceived

ceived with extreme diſlike that a new ſource of national revenue and additional means of civilization were thus opened to the Ruſſians; he therefore wrote to the king of Denmark, endeavouring to inſpire that prince with imaginary alarms; by repreſenting to him that the Engliſh were providing Ruſſia with arms and implements of war, and rendering that nation more flouriſhing and formidable, to the great detriment of its neighbours; and concluded by conjuring him, by his own intereſt, to prevent by all poſſible means the navigation of the Engliſh to the White-ſea. His zeal carried him ſo far, that he made ſimilar remonſtrances to queen Elizabeth; though there, as he might naturally have ſuppoſed, without effect. That princeſs, on the contrary, concluded a treaty with Denmark in 1583, by which the ſhips of the Ruſſia company were granted the free navigation of the North-ſea, to ſail along the coaſts of Norway and Lapland to the haven of St. Nicholas, and in ſtormy weather were allowed to run into the ports of Norway and Iceland.—The flemiſh and german merchants likewiſe ſpared neither money nor pains in oppoſition to the Engliſh. To enable themſelves to make preſents, they took up money at five-and-twenty per cent. and paid annually in intereſt five thouſand marks. They actually ſucceeded ſo far as to gain over ſome perſons of conſequence at the ruſſian

court, who were continually counterworking every exertion of the Engliſh.

Though the paſſage to the ſhores of the White-ſea and the Frozen-ocean was excluſively granted to the Engliſh, yet, even during the reign of Ivan II. other nations took part in that privilege, eſpecially in thoſe intervals when the alternate courſe of private negotiations between the two courts occaſioned a coolneſs on one ſide or the other. Beſides the Flemings, the Danes and Norwegians, particularly the Brabanters, were the moſt active in reaping advantage from this new branch of commerce. When the agent from the Ruſſia company arrived in 1584 at New-Kholmogor, he was ſaluted by the engliſh, dutch and french ſhips lying in that harbour; whence it is to be inferred, that the company had relinquiſhed their claims to an excluſive trade in oppoſition to their own countrymen.

Such was the ſtate of the commerce on the White-ſea, during the reign of Ivan II. The long continuance of this reign, from 1534 to 1584, and the number of memorable events by which it was diſtinguiſhed, had a great influence on the trade of Ruſſia; but we can at preſent only afford time to take a glance at the Baltic.

Here ſome important revolutions happened in the political conſtitution of the maritime countries, productive of very conſiderable conſequences

to

to commerce. The attempt of Ivan II. to ſubdue Livonia, brought on a diſſolution of the government of the teutonic order. Eſthonia, in 1561, put itſelf under the protection of Sweden, Livonia formed a junction with Poland, and Courland became a peculiar ſtate under poliſh ſupremacy. Ruſſia, from the beginning of the war, had got poſſeſſion of Narva, which ſhe maintained from 1558 to 1581. By the opening of the navigation to the White-ſea, ſhe obtained therefore, about the ſame time, a direct communication with the Baltic. The former, partly by reaſon of its remote ſituation, and partly on account of the excluſive privileges of the Engliſh, was ſhut up to moſt of the trading nations; whereas the Baltic was acceſſible to people of every country, and during the abovementioned period was the moſt conſiderable mart for the ruſſian commerce.

The hanſa, already long diſpleaſed that their merchants were no longer permitted to trade immediately with the Ruſſians, and jealous at the exertions of the livonian cities, who were ſtriving to draw the ruſſian trade to themſelves alone; at the ſame time deſirous of being near their old ſtation at Novgorod, they directly removed their ſtaple to Narva, as ſoon as that city was taken poſſeſſion of by the Ruſſians. Ivan Vaſſillievitch indeed owed the hanſa a grudge for having, from ſelfiſh motives, defeated his plan for bringing

german mechanics and artiſts into Ruſſia; but it was neceſſary that his hatred ſhould give way to maxims of policy. He not only immediately confirmed the hanſeatic ſettlement in Narva, but even invited the german and other foreign merchants, by the moſt friendly reception and by frequent entertainments, to viſit this new ſtaple-town. In a ſhort time here was a confluence of ſhips from Antwerp, Brabant, Holland, France, and even the Engliſh employed this arm of commerce and their great privileges, for tranſporting into Ruſſia, by this ſhort conveyance, ſeveral articles, which, on account of the diſtance, could not go to Kholmogor.

The eaſy and commodious track which was opened by the Caſpian into the interior of Aſia, was no ſooner in the hands of the Ruſſians than it rouzed the ſpeculative ſpirit of the Engliſh to the moſt active exertions. We have ſeen that our induſtrious countrymen had about this time diſcovered the paſſage to the White-ſea, and that the occaſion to this diſcovery had been the deſire of finding a northern way to China and India. How agreeable muſt it appear to the Engliſh, now by means of their ſettlements in Ruſſia, to have found ſuch a paſſage by the Volga and the Caſpian! They loſt not a moment in profiting by it. So early as the fourth voyage undertaken by the Ruſſia company to St. Nicholas, Jenkinſon was commiſſioned

commiſſioned to obtain for them a free commerce through Ruſſia to the Caſpian. Ivan II. conſented to their requeſt without heſitation, and immediately in the following year Jenkinſon ſet out on his firſt voyage thither.

As the tzar regarded the enterpriſes of the Engliſh in ſome meaſure as his own, promiſing both to himſelf and his country great benefits from them, Jenkinſon received from him letters of recommendation and credit to all the princes through whoſe territory he might have occaſion to paſs: Jenkinſon traveled therefore more like a ruſſian ambaſſador than an engliſh merchant. However, he carried with him a conſiderable ſtock of goods, that he might ſee which met with the beſt ſale, and might turn out to the greateſt advantage. He ſet out on his journey from Moſco the 25th of April 1558, and arrived at Aſtrakhan the 14th of July.

Here Jenkinſon found tartarian and perſian merchants, who propoſed making a journey to Bukharia. He joined their company, embarked the 6th of Auguſt on the Volga, and arrived at the latter end of that month at Manguſlaf or Manguſchlak, a ſea port town on the eaſtern ſhore of the Caſpian. Hence, with a caravan conſiſting of a thouſand camels, he traveled by land to Bukharia, and, croſſing Urgentz, reached the city of Bukhara in thirty-four days. The engliſh commodities here found but little vent; there

having been lately a great importation from Smyrna and Aleppo, and Jenkinſon could not afford to ſell his ſo cheap as they were diſpoſed of by the other merchants at Bukhara. The expenſive journey, the various duties, and the preſents which he was obliged occaſionally to make, conſumed almoſt all his profits: as, moreover, the caravan had often been in extreme danger from the predatory attacks of the Uſbeks, it is natural to ſuppoſe that Jenkinſon could not recommend to his countrymen the commeree to the Bukharèy.

On the journey back from Bukhara to Manguſchlak, Jenkinſon paſſed five weeks and ſome days. On the 28th of May 1559, he returned to Aſtrakhan, and at the beginning of September was again in Moſco. He had had an opportunity of delivering five-and-twenty Ruſſians from thraldom, brought the tzar a variety of intereſting accounts from thoſe parts, and at the ſame time preſented to him ſix deputies from the khans of Bukhara, Balk, Urgentz, &c. Theſe inſtances of activity and zeal in Jenkinſon, raiſed him to a high degree of favour with Ivan II.

The account brought by Jenkinſon of the practicability and advantages of the bukharian commerce, not being very encouraging, the Ruſſia company in London made now a ſecond attempt

to

to ſet up a trade to the perſian province of Schirvan, and the conduct of it was once more entruſted to Jenkinſon. He accordingly reached Moſco in 1561, but was unable to proceed farther on his journey till the following year. The tzar delivered to him ſeveral private meſſages to the Sophi of Perſia, and at the ſame time ordered him to buy up diamonds and other jewels with a quantity of wrought ſilks on his account. He was accompanied on this journey by a perſian ambaſſador who happened at that time to be leaving Moſco.

The paſſage over the Caſpian brought him to the coaſt of Schirvan, where the goods were unſhipped, and tranſported farther on camels. Of the ſhah of Kaſbin, where Jenkinſon had hoped to effect the moſt, he met with no very good reception; but Abdullah, prince of Schamakhie, granted the Engliſh a charter for an unlimited commerce in his dominions free from all duties and impoſts whatever; ſending alſo with Jenkinſon an ambaſſador to Ivan Vaſſillievitch. On the way back, Jenkinſon met an agent of the tzar of Georgia, who communicated to him that his prince had formed the deſign of putting himſelf under ruſſian protection.

No ſooner was Jenkinſon returned to Moſco in Auguſt 1563, but he immediately ſet about a new conveyance of engliſh commodities to Perſia, which

which he delivered to the factors Thomas Alcock and Richard Cheynie. The former of whom had the misfortune to be killed; but Cheynie returned through Ruſſia home to England, where he adviſed the company to direct their mercantile enterpriſes principally towards Zilan.

In the year 1565 another miſſion went off to Perſia, commanded by Arthur Edwards. The voyage this time was performed from Yaroſlaf, in a veſſel built at that place, and proceeded to Niſabat, on the weſtern ſhore of the Caſpian. Abdullah, the friend of the Engliſh, had in the mean time died, but Edwards received a more favourable reception from ſhah Thamas at Kaſbin. He obtained a charter in behalf of the engliſh commerce to Perſia, in which likewiſe an exemption from duties was granted them. Edwards, on his expedition ſent the company ſeveral propoſals for the extenſion of their Aſiatic trade. He adviſed the inſtitution of a factory at Ghilan, where ſilk is more plenty, better and cheaper than in the other provinces of Perſia. He alſo propoſed to open a paſſage for merchandiſe through Perſia to Ormus, in order to get the eaſt indian commodities by that road; till they could build better and larger ſhips at Yaroſlaf.—This was therefore the ſecond propoſal, ſince the annihilation of Viſbey, for reſtoring the antient indian mercantile paſſage over Ruſſia.

In

In the years 1568 and 1569 two more expeditions to Perſia were ſet on foot by the Engliſh, but were broken off by the ſiege of Aſtrakhan by the Turks. The trade to Kaſbin continued to flouriſh with increaſing vigour, and the Engliſh were already ſeriouſly employed in forming plans for extending it to China and to India.—On their return acroſs the Caſpian in 1573, they were attacked by the Kozaks, who were beginning about this time to carry on their piracies with additional frequency and force. After a ſtout reſiſtance, the Engliſh were obliged at length to ſubmit. Their ſhip and its freight remained in poſſeſſion of the Kozaks, who put the crew into a ſmall boat, and, giving them an allowance of proviſions, left them to their fate. They found their way to Aſtrakhan; where, on their declaration of what had befallen them, two armed tranſports were immediately ſent out in queſt of the pirates. They were found, taken, and all put to death: on which the commodities, amounting in value to between thirty and forty thouſand pounds ſterling, were ſafely brought to Aſtrakhan. As the voyage had been greatly delayed by this misfortune, the Engliſh were overtaken by the winter on their paſſage down the Volga. Their veſſel was ſo ſhattered by the ice, that a part of the freight was entirely ſpoilt. Nevertheleſs the factory, in their accounts affirmed, that they had loſt nothing by this voyage; and that, had it not

been for the unfortunate accident abovementioned, the profits would have been greater than they could ever have been by any commercial undertaking in England.

After this voyage ſeveral years elapſed without any enterpriſe being made by the Engliſh for a paſſage to Perſia, whereof partly the diſpleaſure of the tzar, at the failure of his negotiation with queen Elizabeth, and partly the frequent piracies of the Kozaks might have been the occaſion. The latter got to ſuch a head, that even the ambaſſadors of the ruſſian and perſian courts were no longer in ſafety. Ivan II. ſent an army of ſoldiers againſt this neſt of robbers, who either exterminated or drove them into other regions. — It was this expedition which accidentally gave riſe to the conqueſt of Siberia.

At length, in 1579, another voyage was brought to effect. This proved the moſt toilſome, the moſt perilous, and the moſt unproductive of all. Perſia was at that time over-run with turkiſh troops, who deſolated the country; the Engliſh were obliged to pay impoſts from which they had till now been exempt; the turkiſh commanders ſeized upon the engliſh property, paying for what they purchaſed ſuch ſums as they pleaſed; the ſhip was cruſhed to pieces between floating maſſes of ice as ſhe ran into the Volga, and it was with the greateſt difficulty that the Engliſhmen ſaved their lives, and a part of their goods.

Such

Such a ſeries of untoward events deterred the company from proſecuting the commerce of the Caſpian. This voyage was the laſt that was undertaken by the Engliſh, after having carried on a trade with Perſia for two and twenty years, and during that time made ſeven trading voyages. — As this enterpriſe was performed entirely by Engliſhmen, ſolely on their own account, and for their peculiar benefit, it does not, with the utmoſt propriety, belong to the general hiſtory of ruſſian commerce; it is here, however, rather circumſtantially deſcribed, as it in ſome meaſure laid the firſt foundation of the ruſſian trade on the Caſpian, and was extremely inſtructive to the Ruſſians in more than one reſpect. Hitherto they had carried on their commerce to Perſia and Bukharia only by land; they now began to conſtruct tranſport ſhips on the Volga, and to ſail coaſtwiſe to the circumjacent harbours. The firſt period of ruſſian navigation on the Caſpian cannot, indeed, be accurately aſcertained; yet in 1559, and therefore only four years after the taking poſſeſſion of Aſtrakhan, Jenkinſon found in the port of Manguſchlak a ruſſian bark, which being provided with a couple of anchors, reſcued him from a very diſtreſſing extremity, by letting him have one of them *. The frequent voyages made by the Engliſh, the ſuperior con-

* Miller's ſammlung ruſſiſch. geſchichte, vol. vii. p. 449.

ſtruction of their veſſels, their unrivalled ſkill, excellent preparations, and numerous reſources, incited the Ruſſians to imitation: their navigation and their commerce went on continually improving, and would probably have very ſoon proceeded to a much greater extent, had not the piracies of the Kozaks on the Caſpian, and on the Volga, and the diſturbances in Perſia, proved ſuch material impediments to them *.

* Storch's Gemælde des ruſſiſchen reichs, vol. iv. p. 206.—227. 241. 252.

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